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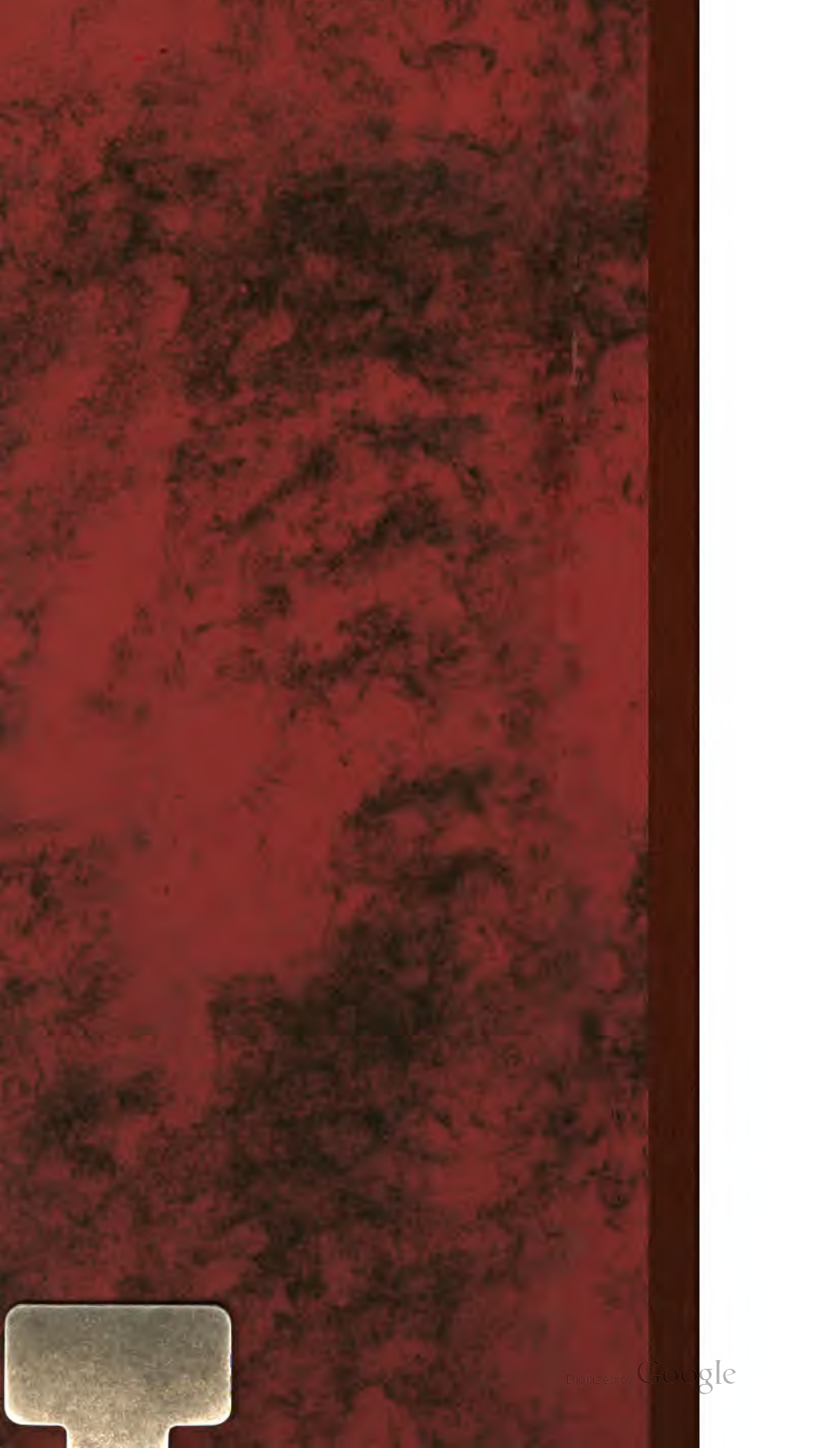
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Colonial and Indian Exhibition,
1886.

HANDBOOK TO FIJI
AND
CATALOGUE OF THE EXHIBITS.

*ISSUED UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE
EXECUTIVE COMMISSIONER*

THE HON. JAMES E. MASON, M.L.C.

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PREFACE.

THESE notes are intended to give an accurate though concise idea of the Colony of Fiji.

It is hoped they may be of interest and use to those intending to invest capital in one or other of the chief products of the tropics for which the Colony is eminently adapted, or to those who, tempted by the genial climate and productive soil, may elect to make their homes in a country which, though so far removed from England, is yet within a few days reach of the great and rising Australasian Colonies.

The calling of a tropical horticulturist or agriculturist is one of peculiar interest, and presents a field of profit and research without the ordinary monotony associated with farming in the extra-tropical portion of the empire.

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Executive Commissioner.

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COLONY OF FIJI.

GOVERNMENT AND LEGISLATION.

FIJI is a Crown Colony, the affairs of which are administered by a Governor and Executive Council. The laws are prepared by a Legislative Council, of which the Governor is President, composed of the Chief Justice and five other heads of departments as official members, and also of six unofficial members nominated by the Governor and appointed by the Queen for life.

On the institution of British authority in the Fiji Islands the Acts of the Parliament of New South Wales were, as far as applicable to the circumstances of the Colony, temporarily adopted as the laws of the Colony of Fiji; but in the Ordinance erecting a Supreme Court, it is provided that the law of England is to be taken wherever no other provision has been made by the local law, to be applied in a manner suitable to the circumstances of the Colony.

The fact of the Colony on its creation being practically without any system of legislation has enabled the Crown to initiate laws affecting the great interests of the Colony, which might not have been possible under other circumstances. In a subsequent chapter the very important matter of Land Titles will be treated, and it may be sufficient to mention here some of the other more important measures which have become law.

A system of registration of deeds, writings and documents prevails, by which, in addition to Land Titles, all deeds whatever may be registered for preservation. A mode of enforcing the execution of deeds has been provided, the idea being taken partly from the French and partly from the Scotch systems, by which it is not necessary to have recourse to the courts of law when the party bound by a deed has failed to perform his part thereof. The creditor or the party in whose favour the obligation was undertaken may obtain a warrant of execution from the Registrar-General which has all the effect of a judgment of the proper court, and may be enforced by the Sheriff in the usual way. This throws the onus of having recourse to the courts of law upon the debtor, who may take out an injunction to stay the proceedings of the Sheriff. But to obtain this he must set forth good and sufficient reasons to satisfy the Court either that the obligation he undertook has been paid or satisfied, or that it ought not to be enforced for some special reason advanced. The much greater hold thus given to the creditor has an especial value in inducing credit companies and capitalists to be liberal in their advances to planters and others for the development of the Colony. In the same way it is not necessary to have recourse to the courts to enforce payment of bills of exchange. The extended protest of the Notary Public is registered, and a warrant of execution obtained from the Registrar-General, which may be put in the hands of the Sheriff.

The cash credit system, which has done so much to develop the prosperity of Scotland, has also been introduced, under which a bank, upon the security of one or more guarantors, may advance money to a third person on an account to be operated on by him up to a definite amount, he and the guarantors being jointly and severally liable for the balance due at any time the bank may desire to bring the account to a close. Here again there is no necessity for an appeal to the Courts, but a warrant of execution may be obtained by the bank on the registration of the cash credit bond.

The bankruptcy Ordinance of the Colony has some new features. The most notable, perhaps, is that while all persons, whether traders or not, may apply to be made bankrupt (there is no separate system of insolvency), a non-trader can only do so if a writ of arrest is out

against him for payment of a debt of £50 or upwards, and the definite adjudication is not granted until the applicant has passed a public examination. If any suspicious dealings should be discovered, the adjudication would be refused, and the creditors left to their remedies, including imprisonment of the debtor. A trader may apply if he is in a state of pecuniary embarrassment; but where he does so of his own accord, the public examination must be passed before adjudication. Where the application is reasonable and proper, the system of the ordinance is to regard a dividend of 10s. in the pound as satisfactory, entitling the debtor to a first-class certificate without further trouble; but where a less dividend is paid, or is likely to be obtained, the discharge will, in the general case, be only qualified, and the debtor required to pay from his future earnings as much as will make up a dividend of 10s. in the pound to the creditors. As might have been expected, bankruptcies are few. The remedy of imprisonment for debt exists, and is employed for the recovery of small sums. The debtor may apply for his release on giving up his property, or by undertaking to pay the debt by instalments, with or without security, as the Court may allow.

By a law passed at a very early period of the existence of the Colony, the judgments of the Courts of the Australian Colonies may be enforced in Fiji; but these Colonies have, up to the present time, failed to give the same facilities to judgments of the Supreme Court of Fiji.

For the purpose of encouraging all kinds of lawful enterprise, the partnership law has been codified, and various improvements introduced which have not yet been adopted in England. The partnership, for example, may sue and be sued in its own name, as if it were a person, and foreign companies may sue or be sued in the same manner on the name of their resident manager or other officer being registered. A plantation may be carried on in partnership, and the real as well as personal estate be held in the partnership name. There may be not only unlimited partnerships and limited companies, but the Continental system of having limited partners in private partnerships has also been introduced. By this means a plantation or other business may be carried on by an individual or by two or more partners, they being liable to the full extent of their means, while friends who may have confidence in them may go in as partners to a definite amount, drawing whatever proportion of profit may be stipulated, but not being liable beyond the original amount contributed by them. Creditors are notified of the nature of such partnerships by the registration of a summary of the articles of partnership and the disclosing of the sums advanced in this manner, but not the names of the limited partners which, contrary to the Continental system, may be kept secret.

Much of the early legislation was necessarily taken up with the subject of labourers, Fijians and imported Polynesians and coolies. Full details of the system at work will be found in another chapter; but it will readily be admitted that the difficulties of adjusting a legislative system which will ensure the protection and encouragement of the various classes of labourers named, with the demands of the white settlers, is no easy task, and must require much careful watching and improvement from time to time.

The Ordinances providing for a Supreme Court, for civil and criminal procedure, and the appointment of Stipendiary Magistrates, embrace many improvements which it would occupy too much space to enumerate. Suffice it to say that pleadings are brief, and that cases are heard within a very short period after the service of the Writ of Summons. Both facts and law are determined by the Court. An appeal is allowed to the Privy Council when the value in dispute is £500 or upwards. In criminal cases the accused is permitted to make his own statement or answer questions put to him by the presiding Judge. In the trial of native cases the Judge has the assistance of Assessors, and this system is also adopted where whites are accused of doing injury to natives. In other criminal cases trials are by jury. A cheap and speedy system is in operation for the recovery of debts up to £50, these cases being taken in the different districts by the Stipendiary Magistrates acting as Commissioners of the Supreme Court, which revises the decisions before execution is granted in cases above £10 in value.

A law has been passed providing for the government of towns by means of a Warden and Town Board, and bye-laws have been framed under the powers of the Ordinance for the conduct of the municipal business of Suva and Levuka, the chief towns. An education law has been passed, under which flourishing public schools have been established in Suva and

Levuka. The public health has been duly provided for by means of local authorities in the different districts.

Altogether it may be fairly said that during the years of British administration the laws which have been already passed, and the codifying Ordinances of various parts of the law which are now before the legislature, place the legislation of the Colony in a position which might afford a model to many older and richer countries.

HISTORY.

The Fijiian Archipelago was discovered on the 5th of March, 1643, by Abel Jansen Tasman, the famous Dutch navigator. So far as can be conjectured, for the track shown upon the chart does not agree with the day's navigation as recorded in the log, Tasman entered the group from the eastward somewhere between the 16th and 17th degrees of south latitude, and not finding anchorage, worked his way northward among the islands and reefs lying off the coasts of Taviuni and Vanua Levu. After many risks of shipwreck, he cleared the islands by way of Undu Point and Thikombia, naming the group, so far as then discovered, "PRINS WILLHEMS EYLANDEN." Captain Cook, more than one hundred years after, lay-to one night off Vatoa or Turtle Island. Captain Bligh, upon his memorable voyage in the launch of the *Bounty*, sighted a part of the group in 1789, and subsequently (in 1792), while commanding the *Providence*, made further observations, some of them remarkably accurate. Captain Wilson, in the Mission ship *Duff*, is said to have followed Tasman's course; but, less fortunate than his predecessor, he struck (September 13th, 1797) on the outlying reefs of Nukubasanga, very near to the scene of Earl Pembroke's disaster in the *Albatross* (October 21st, 1870).

The early history of the contact between Fijians and Europeans is involved in obscurity, and though it is not improbable that some of the seventeenth-century navigators who sailed from the west coast of South America, and were never heard of, visited the group, nothing definite was known of the islands or its people until the beginning of this century, when an occurrence happened which brought them under the notice of the Governor of New South Wales. The Rev. Thomas Williams ("Fiji and the Fijians") thus describes the event.

"About the year 1804 a number of convicts escaped from New South Wales and settled among the islands. Most of these desperadoes lived either at Mbau or Rewa, the chiefs of which allowed them whatever they chose to demand, receiving in return their aid in carrying on war. The new settlers made themselves dreaded by the natives, who were awed by the murderous effects of their firearms. The hostile chiefs seeing their bravest warriors fall in battle without an apparent cause, believed their enemies to be more than human, against whom no force of theirs availed, whose victory was always sure, while their progress invariably spread terror and death. No thought of improving and consolidating the power thus won seems to have been entertained by the whites. Had such a desire possessed them, the absolute government of the entire group lay within their reach; but their ambition never rose beyond a life of indulgence and an unrestrained gratification of the vilest passions. Some of them were men of the most desperate wickedness, being regarded as monsters even by the ferocious cannibals with whom they associated. These lawless men were twenty-seven in number on their arrival, but in a few years the greater part had ended their career, having fallen in the native wars, or in deadly combat among themselves. A Swede, named Savage, who had some redeeming traits in his character, and was acknowledged as head man by the whites, was drowned and eaten by the natives of Weileu in 1813. In 1824 only two, and 1840 but one of his companions survived. This last was an Irishman named Connor, who stood in the same relation to the King of Rewa as Savage had done to the King of Mbau. His influence among the natives was so great, that all his desires, some of which were of the most inhuman kind, were gratified. The King of Rewa would always avenge, and often in the most cruel manner, the real or fancied wrongs of this man. If he desired the death of any native, the chief would send for the doomed man and direct him to make and heat an oven, into which, when red-hot,

the victim was cast, having been murdered by another man sent for the purpose. Soon after the death of his patron, Paddy Connor left Rewa. He was thoroughly Fijianized, and of such depraved character that the white residents who had settled in the islands drove him from among them, being afraid of so dangerous a neighbour. At the close of his life, his thoughts seemed only occupied about rearing pigs and fowls, and increasing the number of his children from 48 to 50."

It was through the influence of those men that Mbau and Rewa first assumed a position of superiority over the other islands of the group; a position which the former still, in some sense, although under entirely new conditions, retains.

The vague but always magnificent accounts which about this time began to find their way to the mother colony of the Australias caused the islands to be visited for the purpose of trading for sandalwood, bêche-de-mer, and tortoise-shell for the China market. The masters of vessels fitted out for this purpose found trading, though very hazardous, extremely profitable. It was not safe for men to go on shore unless in parties, and well armed. Vessels occasionally got lost on treacherous reefs, and sometimes the crews were massacred. Many an antiquated gun and anchor still lying in Fijian towns bears silent witness to the wild events of bygone days. When opportunity offered, there were severe reprisals, and the stories of old traders (now deceased) recalled to mind the old buccaneering times as told in the stirring narratives of Dampier and Drake. The white population slowly increased, and, about the year 1835, and chiefly in consequence of the friendly disposition of its chief, a small settlement of white men was established at Levuka. Considering the origin of this community, the absence of all restraints, and the frequently wild and dangerous life its members led, it must be admitted that they compare favourably with men of a similar class who settled on other islands of the Pacific. They traded in coconut-oil, bêche-de-mer, pearl shell, and anything they could pick up from the natives. Some of them settled down as carpenters, boatbuilders, and blacksmiths, and the leading person among them, one Daniel Whippy, was, though uneducated, certainly a superior man, and did much to preserve good order. Captain Wilkes, who arrived at Ovalau in May, 1840, says, "Ovalau is the principal residence of the white men in the group, to whose general deportment and good conduct I must bear testimony. I found none better disposed throughout the voyage than were found there." In 1851 the gold discoveries of California gave rise to considerable traffic between Sydney, Melbourne, and San Francisco; and many gold-seekers calling in at Fiji, charmed with the aspect and freedom of the country, returned to it when it was no longer easy to make rapid fortunes at the mines.

In 1859 Mr. Pritchard, then British Consul at Fiji, being impressed with a conviction that it could be made a great cotton-producing country, exerted himself to direct attention to its advantages as a field for emigration. In 1861 the European population numbered 166 adults, a large proportion of whom were highly respectable people. An impression having gone abroad that the British Government had determined to take possession of the islands, new arrivals from New Zealand were frequent at this time. Some brought with them small cutters and remained in the group to trade, but the majority of the new comers, on discovering that the Imperial authorities had declined the proffered cession of the islands, returned.

The circumstances which led Thakombau to desire the British Government to take possession of the islands are as follows. On the 4th July, 1849, while the late M. J. B. Williams, then American Consul, was celebrating his national anniversary by the firing off cannons and letting off squibs on the island of Nukulau, his house took fire and was burnt to the ground. Subsequent to these events complaints were made against Thakombau, and numerous losses ascribed to him. Claims for damages were then made by the American citizens through their Consul, and Thakombau was saddled with the whole responsibility, though there was no evidence whatever to show that he had been instrumental in causing the losses complained of. After some preliminary investigation on the part of the United States Government, Commander Boutwell was sent to Fiji, in the year 1855, to inquire into the claims; the result was, that the American citizens were awarded about £9000. Thakombau being quite unable to satisfy this demand, he, in 1858, offered to cede the sovereignty of the islands to Her Majesty, on condition that he should retain the rank and title of Tui Viti (King of Fiji), which had been accorded to him by the American Government, and that in consideration of his

ceding 200,000 acres of land, Her Majesty's Government should pay the American claims for him.

A deed of cession, signed by Thakombau and the leading chiefs, was accordingly conveyed to England, by Mr. Pritchard, in the early part of the year 1859. Great interest was felt in the Colonies in the proposed cession, and some exertions were made to induce the British Government to entertain the proposition favourably, as good proof had just been obtained of the capabilities of Fiji as a cotton-growing country, while the supply of that staple for the home market had been greatly diminished. Some months later Colonel Smythe, R.A., was appointed to proceed to the islands as a Commissioner to inquire into the state of affairs and report as to the advisability of accepting the proposed cession. At the same time the military difficulties in New Zealand were causing very serious embarrassment, and the Imperial authorities, having quite enough to do with one native war on hand, were in no humour to accept the responsibility of managing Thakombau's unruly subjects. The Commissioner's report, as might have been anticipated from the circumstances, was against the acceptance of the offer, and it was accordingly declined.

From this time forward various attempts were made, at the instigation of white residents, to establish a regular form of Government, they being disappointed that the result of Colonel Smythe's mission had been unsuccessful. From one cause and another, however, but principally in consequence of the mutual suspicion and hostility of the leading chiefs, every such attempt failed.

In the early part of 1871 a more ambitious effort was made. Thakombau, with the assistance of Messrs. Woods, Sagar, Burt and Hennings, made an attempt to form a Government for the whole group, and delegates of both races were invited to meet in congress to discuss and frame a Constitution. In August, 1871, these delegates met in formal convention, and after much deliberation, agreed to a Constitution for the "Kingdom of Fiji," and to regulations and conditions under which the Government of the Kingdom should be carried on. The House of Delegates having performed its functions, it was in due course dissolved, returning officers appointed, and writs issued for the election of members to serve in the Assembly of Fiji. These elections were duly carried out, and the first Fijian Parliament met (1871) under the Speakership of Mr. Butters, formerly Mayor of Melbourne.

The Constitution Act framed by the House of Delegates provided for a Government of the whole group, and the establishment of a Constitution from and after October 1, 1871. It also provided that the form of Government should be Executive, Legislative, and Judicial; the Executive to consist of the King and the Ministry; the Legislative of a Privy Council and House of Representatives. The Judicial was invested in a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and two Associate Judges, one of whom was to be a native, whose decisions were final. The Privy Council was composed of the native governors of the provinces into which the Constitution Act directed that the Kingdom should be subdivided. The House of Representatives was formed of members returned by the electoral districts proclaimed throughout the islands. All measures passed by the House of Representatives were to be submitted to the Privy Council, which had not, however, the power of vetoing any measures not meeting with its approval, but simply of returning them to the Assembly from which they originated for reconsideration. The number of members were limited to forty, and not less than twenty. The qualifications of an elector were payment of taxes, six months' residence, and that he should be a male subject of the Kingdom, not a minor. Without entering too much into detail, it may be stated that such a system of Government was utterly unsuited to the condition of the country. It was cumbrous, expensive, and placed all political power in the hands of white settlers, leaving the natives, who numbered ninety-nine hundredths of the entire population, with the merest shadow of influence. Moreover, the Assembly and the Ministry did not agree very well. As in colonies not remote from Fiji, the first half of each session of the Assembly was taken up by efforts on the part of the leaders of the Opposition to change places with Ministers of the Crown. The most serious difference, however, arose upon the question of electoral franchise, the settlers arguing that the franchise was confined to the whites solely, and Ministers disputing the point.

Matters soon came to a crisis, through the King refusing to accept the resignation of

Ministers who had been defeated "constitutionally" by a large majority. The Assembly was dissolved in consequence in the middle of 1873.

A new Constitution was framed by the Government, conferring upon the natives a large share of power, and providing for a Legislative Assembly, consisting partly of nominee and partly of elective members. It was, however, though assented to by the King, never put in force, as it was strongly opposed by Commodore Goodenough and Mr. Consul Layard, who arrived in Fiji at the close of 1873, with instructions to inquire into the condition of the islands with regard to annexation, in response to a proposal made by the Fijian Government to re-open the question of annexation to Great Britain. It was agreed that, pending the question of cession to Her Majesty, the *status quo* should be observed. The Commissioners addressed a letter to the King on the 17th January, 1874, telling him the object of their mission, visited several of the islands, and collected a mass of information, which, on being laid before Parliament, was somewhat severely criticised by Mr. Gladstone. At the end of February it was announced that the King and chiefs were about to summon a great meeting to decide upon the question of ceding the country to Great Britain. At this meeting, at which the Commissioners attended, the King and chiefs decided against the cession, whereupon Ministers resigned in a body, and, immediately afterwards, on Mr. Thurston attempting to form a Ministry, every obstacle was put in the way. The Commodore and Consul proclaimed the bankruptcy of the King's Government, warned all British subjects against giving the Government any credit, and threatened with the penalties of the Foreign Enlistment Act any of them retaining posts as officers in the Armed Constabulary. This completely paralyzed any further attempts at self-government, and acting upon the principle that an honorable capitulation should be preferred to the destruction of a weak garrison, the King's adviser strongly recommended a reconsideration of the question of annexation. Thakombau thereon re-assembled the chiefs, and on the 20th March a formal offer of cession was made, together with a number of conditions which, when considered by the Imperial Government, were pronounced to be unacceptable. On the 17th July, in the House of Lords, Earl Carnarvon stated that the Cabinet had resolved upon deputing Sir Hercules Robinson, K.C.M.G., Governor of New South Wales, to proceed to Fiji and acquaint the King and chiefs that if they wished for annexation it must be unconditional. Sir Hercules Robinson arrived at Levuka on the 23rd September, 1874, and, after several interviews of a most satisfactory nature with the King and chiefs, they made a formal and unconditional cession to Her Majesty of the sovereignty of the islands. The King and chiefs were made fully aware that, while the acceptance of the conditions attached to their offer of cession was quite impossible as tending to fetter the action of Her Majesty's Government, such an intimation of the tendency of their wishes in regard to their country and people would not be without weight, but that if the offer of cession was to be accepted, the natives of Fiji must trust implicitly to the honour and justice of the Queen. The personal manner of Sir Hercules Robinson inspired the chiefs with a confidence before wanting, as it also did those who had been trying to form a Government. At the time of the cession a Provisional Government was in operation, in which Mr. Thurston held the office of Chief Secretary, and Mr. Ryder that of Minister of Finance. Arrangements were made by Sir Hercules Robinson, after the formalities connected with the transfer of the sovereignty had been completed, for the temporary government of the islands until the arrival of a Governor appointed by Her Majesty. These arrangements were the appointment of an Executive Council under the Presidentship of Mr. Consul Layard; the other offices being filled by Mr. (now Sir) J. G. L. Innes without office, Mr. Thurston as Colonial Secretary, Mr. Horton as Treasurer, and Mr. Swanston as Secretary for Native Affairs. Among these last three gentlemen were distributed the supervision of all the administrative and judicial departments of the Government. He further appointed Mr. Garrick to discharge the duties of Judge of the Central Court and Chief Magistrate of the Colony, in the room of the Chancellorship and Justiceship formerly existing, and four European Stipendiary Magistrates, whose office was the trial of European and mixed cases throughout the group. For the efficient administration of native affairs he next divided the islands into twelve provinces, over each of which a provincial chief—styled Roko—and Native Stipendiary Magistrates were appointed. These provinces were sub-divided into eighty-two districts in charge of Mbulis,

each Mbuli being placed in the first, second, or third class, according to the number of villages under his control. The authority of these native officers extended to natives only.

These provisional arrangements on the whole worked well, though the colonists naturally looked forward to the arrival of Sir Arthur Hamilton Gordon, K.C.M.G., who soon after the receipt in England of Governor Robinson's despatches was appointed by Her Majesty the first Governor of the new dependency.

Sir Arthur Gordon arrived at Levuka in H.M.S. *Pearl* on the 24th June, 1875, and landed officially on the following day. It was expected that his Excellency would at once assume the administration of the Government; but as the Chief Justice, the Attorney-General and other officers appointed to be members of the Executive had not then arrived, and the immediate promulgation of the Royal Charter erecting the island into a British Colony would, without the concurrent enactment of several legislative measures, have produced much confusion, the provisional state of things was for a short time continued.

The delay, however, was not of long duration. On the 1st September, 1875, the administration of the Government of the Colony was formally assumed by the Governor, and the Charter of the Colony and His Excellency's Commission were read in the presence of a large concourse of people assembled at Nasova. The interval between His Excellency's arrival and his assumption of office had been fully occupied. One of the first steps taken in June was to send off medical succour to the natives of the outlying districts still suffering from the effects of the fatal visitation of measles, introduced on the return of the ex-King from Sydney, and which had carried off approximately 40,000 of the native population. Much useful information was also acquired by the Governor during this period as to the state and condition of the country before commencing the detailed duties of administration.

The peaceful course of events was, however, soon interrupted. The heathen tribes of the interior of Viti Levu had for some time indicated symptoms of disquietude, and, as in the old days prior to annexation, threatened with aggression the more peaceful and Christian natives of the coast.

On the 12th April, 1876, four or five defenceless villages on the borders of the Nadi and Nadroga provinces were suddenly attacked and burnt. At the same time an attack was made upon Christian villages situated on the Siga Toka River, and on the village of Satubu. In these forays some peaceable and well-disposed natives were killed. These outrages were but the precursors of others still more violent, and by the end of the same month a formidable combination of the heathen mountain tribes had been entered into. It would be impossible in this hasty sketch of events to enter into an account of the measures promptly taken for the suppression of this violence and the restoration of order.

Suffice it to say that a native force was rapidly enrolled and placed under the command of Captain L. F. Knollys, the Governor's aide-de-camp, and that after a brief and arduous campaign, in which he was ably assisted by Mr. A. J. L. Gordon (His Excellency's private secretary), Mr. Walter Carew, Mr. Le Hunte, and other civilians in the service of the Government, the aggressors were entirely defeated and disarmed. A permanent station was then formed on the hills at a place called "Fort Carnarvon," which has since been occupied by a small force of armed native constabulary. Resident Commissioners were appointed to the mountain districts, which for Executive convenience were divided into "Colo East" and "Colo West." The prompt and successful manner in which this perplexing and dangerous event was met and disposed of, gave confidence and satisfaction both to settlers and the civilized natives of the Colony.

At this time there is not a more law-abiding native community in the islands than these erstwhile savages. Justice has been administered among them, and churches and schools been built. It is right to observe that native churches and schools have almost entirely been established and administered by the Wesleyan Mission. Confidence in the Government has grown up, and it is not improbable that peace among the highland tribes will for the future be undisturbed.

Under Letters Patent dated the 17th of December, 1880, the Island of Rotumah with its dependencies, lying between 12° and 15° of South latitude, and between 175° and 180° of East longitude, was, on the petition of the chiefs of the island, annexed to the Colony of Fiji.

During the ten years ending December, 1885, the Colony has made very great progress. The supply of labour has equalled the demand. Steam communication is regular between the Colony and Sydney, Melbourne, and Auckland, the former with a fourteen-day, and the two latter twenty-eight day, services. The interinsular communication is provided for by an excellent and well-found steamer. Business, increasing slowly, and therefore more surely, is conducted upon sound principles. A large amount of capital has been invested in tropical produce, and affairs social and industrial are, all things considered, not unsatisfactory. The commercial state and progress of the group will, however, be described in a separate chapter.

GEOGRAPHY.

The Colony of Fiji comprises the islands lying between the parallels of latitude of 15° South and 22° South of the Equator, and between the meridian of longitude of 177° West and 175° East of the meridian of Greenwich. This area may be described as contained in a square, the sides of which are 440 geographical miles in length. It is distant from Sydney about 1900 miles, and from Auckland 1200 miles. It lies north-east of Tonga 300, and south-west of Samoa 500 miles. The French colony of New Caledonia lies to the westward about 500 miles. The number of islands has been variously stated at from 200 to 250; but this must include mere uninhabited rocks and islets.

The geographical division of the Colony into so many islands, and the small scale of the maps upon which they are usually represented, have led many to the impression that the Colony is very small in area and importance. "But" (to quote from a speech of Lieut.-Governor Des Vœux to the Legislative Council, Fiji, in 1879) "it will probably surprise many educated people to be told that Viti Levu, one only of the eighty inhabited islands, is about as large as Jamaica, and considerably larger than Cyprus; that a second (Vanua Levu) would contain Mauritius three times over, and Barbados ten times; and that the aggregate area of the whole is greater than *all* the British West India Islands, including Trinidad."

The following are the principal inhabited islands, with their area approximately in square miles:—

Name.	Square Miles.	Name.	Square Miles.
Viti Levu	4112	Brought forward	7252
Vanua Levu	2432	Lakeba... ..	12
Taviuni	217	Matuku	11
Kadavu	124	Totoya... ..	11
Windward Isles	59	Mago	10
Goro	58	Cicia	10
Gau	45	Nairai	10
Ovalau... ..	43	Laucala	9
Moala... ..	28	Kioa	9
Rabi	28	Naitamba	9
Qamia	26	Kanacia	8
Vanua Balava... ..	24	Mokogai	5
Vatu Lele	18	Batiki	5
Ono	13	Yassawas and other isles, probably...	60
Bequ	13		
Yadua	12		
Carried forward	7252	Total square miles... ..	7421
		Total acres	4,751,360

The total area is therefore slightly larger than the principality of Wales, which contains 4,734,486.

The principal island, Viti Levu, may be compared in size to the collective areas of Kent, Sussex, Surrey and Middlesex, and Vanua Levu is only a little smaller than the county of

Devon. To give an idea of the magnitude of the larger islands by comparison with other tropical possessions of the Crown, it may be said that Viti Levu alone is nearly as large as Jamaica, twice as large as Trinidad, and six times as large as Mauritius. The aggregate area of the whole group is greater than that of all the British West India islands put together.

The more important islands are hilly and mountainous, rising more or less abruptly from the shore to a height of about 4000 or even 4500 feet.

These hills are generally of a grand and picturesque outline, being composed for the most part of old volcanic lavas, basalt, trachyte, trap, and conglomerate.

Upon the south-eastern or windward sides the islands are covered with dense forests containing numerous varieties of large and valuable trees, among which may be enumerated not less than eight cone bearers, consisting of *Damara*, *Dacrydium* and *Podocarpus*. Also the *Vaivai* (*Serianthes Vitiensis*), the *Vesi* (*Azelia bijuga*), the *Damanu* (*Calophyllum Burmanni*), and many others of much beauty and utility. The lower lands are more lightly timbered, and apparently have all been under cultivation at a not distant period when the native population was much larger. The soil is almost everywhere deep, easily worked, and, as shown by recent analysis, especially rich in humic acid.

The northern and north-western sides of the larger island, that is to say the leeward sides, are characterised by a comparative absence of forest lands. The hills or plains are covered with long reeds or grass, and dotted with clumps of *Casuarina* and *Pandanus*. Upon the borders of rivers and streams, and in sheltered dells collecting the drainage from the surrounding hills, the ordinary fruit and forest trees of the country grow well.

Fiji is essentially a well-watered country. Frequent rains keep alive the sources of the thousands of small affluents feeding the main rivers. Of these rivers, both for size and facility of navigation, the *Rewa* stands first. It is navigable for boats, punts, or flat-bottomed steamers, for a distance of forty or fifty miles from its mouth, if not further. Several large streams, notably the *Waimanu*, the *Waidina* and the *Waimala*, fall into it. The sources of these streams and of the *Waibuka* lie in the high mountains of the interior three or four thousand feet above the level of the sea. Besides these, the *Sigatoka*, the *Nadi* and *Ba* rivers, with many others, drain the principal watersheds of Viti Levu. In Vanua Levu the rivers are not so large though they are nearly as numerous. The more important are the *Dreketi*, the *Lambasa*, the *Wailevu*, and the *Wainunu*. Almost every valley in the group has its brawling stream or brook, from which the native occupants irrigate their plantations of "dalo" (*Calocasia esculenta*).

Fiji is as rich in harbours and roadsteads as it is in rivers. Each island is surrounded by a barrier reef, and, with few exceptions, is accessible through passages usually found opposite to the most considerable valley or river. Between this river and the shore ships lie safely at anchor protected by an indestructible natural breakwater.

TITLES TO LAND.

The white settlers who have proved the *bona fides* of their claims receive a grant from the Crown which thenceforward becomes the basis of the title. This is issued in duplicate under the seal of the Colony, one copy being retained for registration, and the other delivered to the grantee. A plan of the land by the Crown Surveyor of the Colony is delineated on the Grant. All the mortgages and encumbrances on the land are also entered thereon by the Registrar of Titles, so that the Grant not only shows who is the grantee, but also the condition of the land as regards indebtedness. When a grantee sells, he must use the form of Transfer provided by the Real Property Ordinance, 1876, printed copies of which are publicly sold, and which may easily be filled up by any intelligent person. If a solicitor be employed, his remuneration is regulated according to a moderate scale of charges contained in a schedule to the Ordinance, and the fee thus allowed covers all professional work in connection with the Transfer. The Transfer is, in its turn, registered by handing in a duplicate for the purpose, and the Registrar

of Titles then issues a certificate of title which is practically a renewed Crown Grant to the purchaser, with all the mortgages and encumbrances marked thereon as in the case of the original Crown Grant. A new Certificate of Title is granted as often as the property is transferred, so that the title consists of one deed simply, and is always kept clear and distinct without any accumulation of papers and deeds so puzzling to non-professional persons, and so fruitful a source of expense in lawyers' charges and otherwise. It is provided that the original grants, and all certificates of title granted upon transfer, are indefeasible. An exact reproduction of the Title is kept in the volumes of the Registrar of Titles, and the Registrar has ample powers to deal with any of the ordinary accidents which may occur in regard to documents. Where any question of importance arises, for example, whether a particular caveat or mortgage should be inscribed first, the Registrar of Titles has power to refer, in a summary way, to the Supreme Court, and the Court, after hearing parties, can give directions.

The whole system of Land Titles is based upon registration, so that the transfer or mortgage only becomes effective when registered. In place, therefore, of the transfer conveying the property when signed and delivered, as would be the case in England, the transfer is rather the warrant to the Registrar to change the title to the new name. Again, in order that there may be no mistake as to the time when a document concerning land, whether mortgage, transfer or encumbrance, is handed in, a book is kept called the Presentation Book, in which all documents are entered the moment they are presented for registration. The hour and minute of presentation is at once inserted in the appropriate column, and that date, so fixed, is the date of registration which is thereafter marked on the deeds and rules the rights of parties.

The only property in land which is recognised by the law is that of fee simple, so that the whole of the perplexing conveyancing law of England in regard to limited and conditional fees and fees tail is inapplicable to the colony. When a proprietor desires to make a provision for his wife and children he may set forth his wishes, for example, in a trust deed, which may be registered as such in the Register of Deeds; but any provision to affect the land must be done according to the forms in the Real Property Ordinance, and the purposes of the trust are not allowed to encumber the title to land or the Registry of Titles. If the proprietor should desire to limit his own right in the land to a life rent and to transfer the estate to the trustees for the purposes of the deed or settlement, he must create an encumbrance of his own life rent, and execute a transfer to the trustees of the fee simple. A certificate of title will then issue to the trustees as proprietors of the fee simple until they in their turn transfer, with the life rent of the truster marked on the certificate of title as an encumbrance. The Title will thus be kept clear even in those cases where proprietors wish to tie up their own hands from dealing with their own property, but which can only be done to a limited extent, as there must always be a living proprietor in fee simple entitled to deal with the land subject to the mortgages and encumbrances.

A mortgage is defined to be a pledge of the real property for the purposes of security only. If the money borrowed be not paid, the mortgagee—the holder of the pledge—may, after sufficient intimation of his intention, apply to the Court to order a sale. Precautions are taken to prevent the property being sacrificed at a moment inopportune for sales of land. The mortgagee cannot enter into possession of the property in the old way, for the purpose of holding and working it by means of his own capital, and then long years afterwards be called by the mortgagor to file his accounts and redeliver the lands. This system of the neighbouring colonies, so prolific of embittered law-suits, is inconsistent both with the only idea of property in land which is recognised in our law, viz. that of fee simple, or with that of a forfeited pledge, which, if forfeited, ought to be sold under regulations. The mortgagee in the case of an entry upon the lands would not be proprietor in fee simple, and thus the clearness and simplicity of title on the Register, which has been the aim of the Real Property Ordinance, would be interfered with by one person being the virtual proprietor for a time, and another the legal and registered proprietor. When the land, which has been given in pledge, is sold, the Court distributes the price among the mortgagees and encumbrancers according to the order of their priority, handing over the balance, if any, to the mortgagor. The purchaser obtains a title by the issue of a new certificate of title by the Registrar in his favour, purged of all

previous mortgages and encumbrances. Thus again is the title kept clear, and the value of the landed property in the hands of the purchaser by so much enhanced, which, in turn, ensures the highest market price being obtained for the property at the sale.

Leases are treated as Encumbrances, and to be valid must be registered if they are for more than one year's duration. As encumbrances they are entered on the title, so that when a proprietor of land applies to a banker or capitalist for an advance, he shows his Crown grant, or certificate of title, upon which is entered all the mortgages affecting the land, all the Encumbrances of every kind, such as provisions for children, and all the leases. The banker may not be unwilling to make the advance desired, and if it be for a temporary purpose only, for which it is not considered necessary to draw out a mortgage, the title may be deposited as an equitable mortgage. This may be protected by a caveat entered on the Register, which prevents all dealing with the land to the prejudice of the holder of the Equitable Mortgage. The land may be sold for the sum found to be due under the advance when judgment has been obtained, but within a shorter space of time than where there is no equitable mortgage.

It will thus be seen that the European titles to Land in Fiji are absolutely secure, each Crown grant or certificate of title upon transfer, which is in effect a new grant from the Crown, being indefeasible, and that everything has been done which experience of the systems adopted in other countries rendered possible to keep the title from confusion, to make mortgages secure, and to enable money advanced upon land to be at command for repayment without the lender subjecting himself to onerous responsibilities, or the land itself rendered unsaleable and out of the circle of credit, by the title being weighted with uncleared encumbrances from which no one could derive any possible benefit.

CLIMATE AND METEOROLOGICAL RETURNS.

Fiji, unlike most of all the groups in the Pacific, is singularly free from tropical or other diseases, and is considered remarkably healthy. Fevers of an aggravated and malarious character, cholera, and liver complaints are unknown here, partly owing to its geographical position, being so far removed from Asia, Australia, and New Guinea, and partly to the steady south-east trade winds, the prevalence of sunshine, the geological formation, and the heavy rainfalls and its hygienic results. There are many Europeans now in Fiji who have resided there for fifteen or more years in the enjoyment of excellent health, and it is a constant remark how well this country and climate agrees with children. Loss of nervous energy is more marked in the case of women; heat and moisture, indoor occupations, a craving for more society than is afforded by the few European residents scattered somewhat in the different islands, and a general want of excitement for the mind, all lead to this, and encourages the practice of seeking a change for a few months in the year in the cooler climate of the Australasian Colonies.

Europeans with thick blood and highly-strung organisations ought not to live year after year in the tropics without a change, but, as a new Colony in which England can safely push forward her indefatigable pioneers with a good prospect of worldly success and little injury to health, Fiji holds out greater inducements to settlers who have naturally sound constitutions and temperate habits than probably any other of her tropical possessions.

To Europeans who follow outdoor occupations the heat is rather distressing in January, February, and March; but agricultural and other work is regularly performed by whites and blacks without any apparent ill effect to the strong and healthy constitution.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS TAKEN AT LEVUKA, FROM 1ST JANUARY, 1875, TO AUGUST, 1882, AND FROM THAT PERIOD AT SUVA, TO 31ST DECEMBER, 1885, BY
J. D. W. VAUGHAN, F.R.M.S.

Year.	Month.	Mean Baro- meter as read.	Highest Thermo- meter.	Lowest Thermo- meter.	Mean Tempera- ture for the month.	Rain for month.	Greatest daily Rainfall.	Number of days on which Rain fell.
1875	January ...	29.905	87	76	82	11.66	4.33	21
	February ...	29.158	87	76	82	9.82	1.77	21
	March ...	29.652	85	76	80	23.98	3.80	25
	April ...	29.949	84	75	79	18.95	6.97	21
	May ...	30.012	83	75	79	6.86	1.31	17
	June ...	30.012	82	71	78	16.06	5.29	21
	July ...	30.021	81	73	76	2.21	0.56	16
	August ...	30.018	79	65	78	2.62	0.73	14
	September ...	30.018	82	67	78	8.00	2.99	16
	October ...	30.013	83	76	79	7.07	2.17	13
	November ...	29.671	83	73	79	7.21	4.35	18
	December ...	29.889	84	76	80	5.05	2.12	15
1876	January ...	29.239	86	78	82	10.82	4.94	21
	February ...	29.565	92	75	84	8.76	1.91	21
	March ...	29.826	85	76	81	17.39	4.56	26
	April ...	29.916	83	73	79	13.54	4.52	16
	May ...	30.015	81	74	78	2.64	0.55	18
	June ...	30.022	83	72	77	2.42	1.37	14
	July ...	30.019	81	70	75	1.32	0.32	12
	August ...	30.020	80	72	75	5.55	1.38	18
	September ...	30.016	82	70	76	5.12	1.86	16
	October ...	30.015	81	70	77	6.68	1.76	19
	November ...	29.857	83	72	78	7.65	4.38	14
	December ...	29.654	83	74	78	22.71	4.25	20
1877	January ...	29.924	91	69	82	12.40	4.43	14
	February ...	29.998	92	73	82	9.29	1.77	16
	March ...	30.313	90	71	81	12.67	2.23	21
	April ...	30.003	91	72	80	4.12	0.97	17
	May ...	30.122	91	68	82	0.76	0.14	11
	June ...	30.157	89	65	75	6.77	2.14	19
	July ...	30.157	85	62	74	7.16	2.63	15
	August ...	30.118	84	62	72	11.04	2.98	14
	September ...	30.206	82	65	74	2.79	2.03	6
	October ...	30.177	85	66	76	5.47	2.22	10
	November ...	30.445	89	68	79	0.03	0.01	3
	December ...	30.053	91	73	81	0.88	0.27	10
1878	January ...	30.071	86	78	82	8.52	2.46	17
	February ...	30.086	86	76	82	5.37	1.84	18
	March ...	30.050	86	77	81	16.09	3.17	21
	April ...	30.142	84	74	79	17.18	3.10	25
	May ...	30.175	83	71	79	1.74	0.41	12
	June ...	30.209	81	73	77	0.20	0.06	7
	July ...	30.207	82	67	75	1.38	0.41	12
	August ...	30.228	80	70	75	2.86	1.45	9
	September ...	30.258	79	71	76	0.89	0.31	9
	October ...	30.198	81	71	76	3.75	1.10	14
	November ...	30.130	82	74	78	11.35	2.10	21
	December ...	30.078	84	75	80	3.31	0.59	15
1879	January ...	30.030	86	77	81	15.29	3.85	23
	February ...	30.050	85	76	80	12.64	4.26	20
	March ...	30.116	87	78	82	11.42	3.08	20
	April ...	30.141	87	71	81	12.97	1.98	26
	May ...	30.149	85	73	80	7.67	1.96	14
	June ...	30.206	87	73	78	4.21	1.05	17

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS—continued.

Year.	Month.	Mean Baro- meter as read.	Highest Thermo- meter.	Lowest Thermo- meter.	Mean Tempera- ture for the month.	Rain for month.	Greatest daily Rainfall.	Number of days on which Rain fell.
1879	July ...	30·223	83	72	78	5·60	2·52	12
	August ...	30·259	83	70	76	2·44	0·45	17
	September ...	30·233	82	66	77	4·89	1·18	20
	October ...	30·192	84	72	78	8·94	3·42	11
	November ...	30·125	85	73	80	4·84	1·25	14
	December ...	30·029	85	74	80	6·17	1·04	16
1880	January ...	29·962	87	78	82	14·02	3·37	20
	February ...	30·073	87	75	81	7·62	2·34	20
	March ...	30·091	89	73	82	13·62	2·93	17
	April ...	30·148	86	72	79	22·35	5·34	23
	May ...	30·137	89	68	80	5·91	1·95	12
	June ...	30·093	88	69	78	6·45	3·02	18
	July ...	30·108	85	66	76	5·83	1·08	21
	August ...	30·132	84	67	76	10·66	6·92	14
	September ...	30·124	87	67	75	2·60	0·62	8
	October ...	30·108	89	68	77	20·29	7·92	16
	November ...	30·000	89	72	79	9·47	2·98	20
	December ...	30·299	93	73	81	15·52	5·80	19
1881	January ...	29·899	93	74	83	19·94	4·16	26
	February ...	29·929	90	73	81	19·96	4·67	23
	March ...	30·017	93	72	82	11·64	2·30	22
	April ...	30·074	91	72	82	8·00	5·80	10
	May ...	30·114	88	69	78	2·13	0·43	25
	June ...	30·117	88	69	79	2·94	2·34	7
	July ...	30·080	86	67	77	9·46	3·77	16
	August ...	30·152	87	65	77	14·19	5·38	19
	September ...	30·131	88	68	79	6·14	1·83	16
	October ...	30·114	88	66	80	8·95	5·88	7
	November ...	30·013	92	71	83	10·43	2·14	20
	December ...	29·925	89	71	81	22·11	4·66	22
1882	January ...	29·849	91	71	82	11·80	4·30	22
	February ...	29·980	94	70	83	12·77	2·24	16
	March ...	29·951	91	72	81	11·78	1·20	23
	April ...	30·049	90	71	82	2·72	0·58	15
	May ...	30·042	91	68	80	22·59	4·65	20
	June ...	30·100	88	82	78	1·40	0·75	8
	July ...	30·121	86	68	75	8·25	3·92	15
	August ...	30·137	87	68	80	3·88	1·01	7
	September ...	30·111	87	65	77	3·31	0·75	13
	October ...	30·165	86	64	78	5·82	2·04	17
	November ...	30·003	87	68	81	28·73	5·70	20
	December ...	29·919	90	70	83	10·69	2·09	18
1883	January ...	29·909	91	68	83	7·31	2·17	17
	February ...	29·917	86	68	80	13·25	1·90	25
	March ...	29·943	90	70	82	9·08	1·33	21
	April ...	30·036	89	68	80	9·12	2·59	20
	May ...	30·091	87	67	78	4·84	3·38	10
	June ...	30·094	85	63	75	12·25	4·23	20
	July ...	30·140	85	63	74	2·23	0·84	13
	August ...	30·142	85	63	74	7·39	3·10	18
	September ...	30·106	85	61	75	3·70	2·04	12
	October ...	30·114	85	64	76	7·17	1·53	14
	November ...	30·029	88	65	79	18·05	3·42	17
	December ...	29·958	87	70	79	14·46	4·01	27

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS—continued.

Year.	Month.	Mean Barometer as read.	Highest Thermometer.	Lowest Thermometer.	Mean. Temperature for the month.	Rain for month.	Greatest daily Rainfall.	Number of days on which Rain fell.
1884	January ...	29.978	88	70	80	4.40	1.54	18
	February ...	29.959	87	70	80	18.77	7.42	27
	March ...	30.027	87	72	82	15.59	4.22	26
	April ...	30.060	85	70	79	8.71	3.90	18
	May ...	30.091	85	66	76	6.96	1.49	19
	June ...	30.144	85	63	76	2.58	1.02	13
	July ...	30.155	81	63	73	2.46	0.95	18
	August ...	30.150	83	60	73	5.52	2.34	14
	September ...	30.174	81	62	73	13.43	2.07	23
	October ...	30.179	83	62	76	0.51	0.17	9
	November ...	30.066	85	67	79	9.86	2.68	18
	December ...	30.007	87	70	82	3.29	0.90	16
1885	January ...	29.915	87	70	81	12.81	2.15	27
	February ...	29.993	88	73	83	5.62	1.99	18
	March ...	29.963	86	77	82	9.88	2.02	25
	April ...	30.011	87	69	81	10.69	2.11	27
	May ...	30.157	86	67	77	6.03	2.07	24
	June ...	30.181	82	64	75	0.83	0.18	24
	July ...	30.142	82	63	74	2.55	0.70	21
	August ...	30.132	78	62	71	9.00	2.50	28
	September ...	30.193	77	62	72	6.64	2.09	22
	October ...	30.199	80	63	75	3.47	1.00	13
	November ...	30.112	83	67	77	3.51	1.57	17
	December ...	30.048	87	70	80	5.32	2.36	19

N.B.—No corrections have been applied for these returns.

NATIVE AFFAIRS.

ACCORDING TO A CENSUS TAKEN IN APRIL 1881, THE POPULATION THERE AMOUNTED TO 114,748, ACCORDING TO FOLLOWING TABLE.

Provinces.	Population.	Districts.	Villages.	Matagalis or Families.
Ba and Yasawa ...	11,257	11	102	364
Bua ...	6,640	10	83	269
Oakandrove ...	11,823	11	106	327
Kadavu ...	7,746	8	89	481
Lau ...	7,284	10	71	not known
Lomaiviti ...	7,651	10	82	365
Macuata ...	6,542	13	96	—
Nadroga ...	5,086	7	58	—
Namosi ...	1,384	3	26	63
Naitasiri ...	7,206	5	70	238
Ba ...	11,260	13	117	396
Rewa ...	5,315	5	43	267
Tailevu ...	14,830	15	154	558
Colo (Wainimala)...	2,131	5	30	—
Colo (Navosa) ...	6,239	8	59	—
Serua ...	2,354	5	53	73
Total ...	114,748	139	1219	

The Fijians are a well-made, stalwart race, differing in colour according to the situation in which they live. The mountaineers are darker than their brethren on the coast, where the Malayo-Polynesian element is often strongly apparent. The predominant hue is a red-brown. In character they have been described as "full of contradictions, sometimes kind and tractable, and others relentlessly cruel and obstinate. Not a brave people, very unforgiving and ungrateful, lazy and treacherous, but withal manageable with tact and firmness." This description is partly true and partly a libel. It would perhaps be useful and interesting to read the description of a white man given by a discerning and thoughtful Fijian. Much of the contradictory, intractable, and obstinate in the native character may be set down to a misunderstanding of, and a disregard for, Fijian ignorance and habits of thought. When following their chiefs or European leaders in action they have shown themselves brave, loyal, and faithful to death. But in this, as in other things, they must follow their chief. They have no individuality.

In their own way they are industrious people. They dislike prolonged and sustained work, but it must be remembered that hitherto sustained work has not been necessary to their existence. There has been no need for unremitting exertion, and therefore they have not adopted the severe labour of the white man, spurred on by love, hunger, or the pursuit of honour.

Some of those who have known them long and well, and who have had experience of semi-savage life elsewhere, have pronounced them to be the kindest and best-hearted native race in the world, and have advanced as an argument that in no other country in similar condition have Europeans mingled with the people, settled down in isolated spots, and possessed themselves of the "eyes of the land," without the necessity of holding their position by the strong hand, and without a large amount of bloodshed on both sides. Unlike the Melanesian of the New Hebrides, the Fijian always dwelt in good houses built on raised foundations. Their inner town was usually surrounded with a bank and moat. In time of war a fence was added, and at night the people retired within the line of defence. Their laws were, and to some extent still are, partly patriarchal and partly feudal. Their former religion was the worship of ancestors. Many of their former rites and ceremonies were among the most ancient in the world. Monoliths were to be seen at, or near, every heathen temple; they practised circumcision, and they saluted a person sneezing. The unit of society was, and is still, the *matagali*, or family: an association of *matagalis*, or families forms the *qali*, or gens; and the union of the *qali* constitutes the *matanitu*, or tribe. Service, not unlike the Rajah Kariya of Ceylon, is paid to the chiefs. Sometimes this service is rendered in the form of personal and domestic supplies, and sometimes in the form of service in war. The *qali* rendering this last description of service were termed the *Bati*.

At the present time the head chief of a *Matanitu* (now constituting a province), is styled *Roko*, and has under his executive control the *Bulis* or chiefs of *qali*. These again have under them the heads of the *matagali*, who are generally "*turaga ni koro*" or chiefs of towns. The *Rokos* are responsible directly to the Governor. The elders and smaller chiefs meet frequently to discuss their local affairs, and provincial councils, at which the *bulis*, magistrates, and subordinate officers of districts attend, meet every three months. A great council of chiefs, consisting of the *Rokos* of provinces and their officers, meet annually for the discussion of native affairs throughout the Colony. At this council each chief reports the state of his district or province, and submits for consideration any suggestions or proposals he may wish to make. The Governor opens this council, and at its close receives the reports and suggestions of the chiefs. These latter he approves, modifies, or reserves for consideration as may seem proper. He also at this council makes known to the chiefs and people any directions he may have to give for the coming year.

The object of the Government has been to adopt and improve the original, social, and political organization of the people, and to administer the native laws and regulations through native agency. It cannot be denied that instances occur in which native officials make mistakes; but it cannot be denied also that it is better that a class of men so capable of improvement as the Fijian should have an opportunity of learning than that they should be denied the opportunity for doing so, which is afforded by permitting them to take a share in the administration of government among their own people.

In a country like Fiji it would be expensive, if not impossible, to replace the services of natives in authority by white officials solely, and the attempt might not be without danger, for the non-recognition of the leading chief's position would not abate one jot or tittle of their influence among the people: while it would, in place of the cheerful and loyal assistance now rendered to the Government, have provoked suspicion and discontent, self-respect would have followed the loss of position, and there would have been a failure of the understanding and promises made to the natives at the time of Cession.

So far this system of governing the natives with and through the natives has worked economically and well. The Government succeeds in doing what otherwise could not possibly be effected, and the people feel, to use their own expression, that they are still "a voice in the land," that they are not to be degraded and their chiefs ignored as an outcast, alien, and subject race. There still remains much to be done for the native. The women must be raised to a higher domestic position. Industrial schools for the rising generation must be established. Sanitary laws have to be promulgated and enforced, and the introduction and regular use of grain, milk, and meat as articles of food must be attempted.

The population, numerically, is either stationary or slightly increasing, and, under a wise system of government, the maxim of which in regard to natives should be *festina lente*, it may be hoped that an interesting and fine race of people will be preserved from destruction, and that for once they may be shown an exception to the alleged rule that where white and black come into contact the latter surely decay and disappear.

RELIGION.

The best method of exhibiting the condition of the Colony in this respect will be to give a succinct account of the position of the different religious bodies in our midst.

THE WESLEYAN MISSION.

This Mission was begun in Fiji in the year 1835 by the Rev. D. Cargill, M.A., and Rev. W. Cross, from Tonga, with a native teacher of that place. They commenced their work at Lakeba, in the Windward portion of the group. Much assistance was rendered by a supply of native preachers from Tonga, of whom Joeli Bulu became one of the most remarkable. The Islands were gradually, and in some cases rapidly, won by the influence of Christianity, but in the mountains of Na Viti Levu heathenism remained till within the last seven years. At present, however, there is not a single professedly heathen village in the country; the whole of the group is nominally Christian, nearly every village has its own church, resident pastor and school. The distant Island of Rotumah is included in the Fiji Mission District. A marked feature in the conduct of this Mission is the large employment of a native agency—local preachers, teachers, catechists, and ordained native ministers. The English missionaries are principally occupied in training these and in overseeing them in their work. Though they are numerous, and the staff of English ministers small, yet by a careful and minute system of organization, by frequent meetings of various kinds, and by placing some of the best natives in offices of responsibility and honour, considerable supervision and control is maintained. The Fijians have the whole Bible given to them in their own language, and they are great readers of it. There is a number of small books in circulation among them, a hymn book and offices, catechism, and church rules, primer for schools, geography, Pilgrim's Progress, and handbooks of theology for native preachers. There is also a dictionary of the language by the Rev. D. Hazlewood for the use of Europeans. All the children everywhere go to school, and a number of them excel in reading and writing; their other attainments are neither high nor varied. Each village pastor is also a schoolmaster. Special training institutions are maintained. The native ministers are expected to have a few lads under instruction, and each English missionary has also a number in training, from among whom the best are drafted off to the large District Training Institution at Navuloa, which is the chief educational establishment belonging to the

Mission. The native preachers are facile of speech and often very effective, using the beautiful Fijian language with ease, correctness, and originality of expression. Some of the chiefs are most efficient pulpit orators.

Wherever practicable, divine services are held by the missionaries for the settlers and planters, and an English congregation is regularly ministered to by the Wesleyan missionary in Levuka. Attempts have been made to hold services with the imported Polynesian labourers, but difficulties exist which have hitherto rendered most of these attempts abortive. Teachers are sent annually from Fiji to the British Mission, a few being selected from those who volunteer.

The people of Fiji bear a considerable portion of the expense of the Mission in their midst; by far the larger proportion of them are hearers, and there are many members of the Church, including some of the principal chiefs. As to the type of Christianity existing here, it would be manifestly unfair to judge it by that which is recognised in lands long civilised and Christianised. It must be estimated by contrast, the past with the present; what has been abandoned should be considered rather than what has been attained. The Mission has had pioneering work to do, and is now endeavouring to raise the standard of morality and to promote consistency of Christian conduct.

The latest statistical returns are as follows:—Churches, 898; other preaching places, 338; missionaries, 11; native ministers, 55; catechists, 40; head teachers, 1,058; local preachers, 1,785; Sabbath-school teachers, 2,252; class leaders, 3,136; English members, 31; members, 26,839; on trial, 4,659.

THE CATHOLIC MISSION.

The Catholic Mission was founded in Fiji, in August, 1844, at Lakeba. Up to 1863 it was included in the Apostolic Vicarate of Bishop Baliviltou, presiding at the Samoa Islands.

Since that time it has been a separate Mission, under the name of "Prefecture Apostolique," governed by an Apostolic Prefect, under the French dependence of Rome.

The present Superintendent of the Catholic Mission in Fiji is Père Breheret, at Levuka, whose kind and general sympathies have ever been open to one and all of those who, in either spiritual or temporal matters, could be benefited by an appeal to him, and which has won for him universal esteem and respect.

The Mission in Fiji belongs to the Society of "Mary," from Lyons, France.

Since 1860 this Mission has extended from its headquarters at Levuka Station to Rewa, Solevu, Verata, Taviuni, Culanuku, Suva, and the Island of Rotumah.

Besides these establishments, where there are good substantial wooden churches, a school has been lately established at Bureta, on the south-west side of Ovalau, where from fifty to sixty pupils are being taught in all the branches of an English education, both in English and Fijian. It is the intention of the Mission to have "Sisters" for the school, that it may be useful in educating girls of both the white and native race, similar to that in Samoa, which has been so highly useful and popular.

White missionaries conduct most of the schools. In some districts native teachers have charge of them. The number of church members (Catholics) is about 9,000. There are 14 European missionaries under and including the Apostolic Prefect. A great number of children are being educated by the Mission, assisted by native teachers.

CHURCH OF ENGLAND IN FIJI.

A Church was established in Levuka in 1870, and until the removal of the seat of Government to Suva was in a very prosperous state. The Rev. W. Floyd, who holds the Bishop of London's license, and who has been in charge since the Church's first establishment, had brought together a large congregation who gave their liberal support. A clergyman has also, until recently, been stationed on the Rewa River, visiting and holding services in Suva every alternate Sunday. During a recent visit made by the Rev. W. Floyd to England, arrangements were made for the appointment of a clergyman for Suva, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel having granted a sum of £100 per annum towards his stipend. A like sum has also been granted in aid of the Levuka Stipend Fund. The Society for the Propagation of

Christian Knowledge has, under certain conditions, promised a sum of £250 towards the Church Building Funds, both of Suva and Levuka. Plans for a church in Suva are now in the course of preparation, and it is expected that its erection will very shortly be commenced. In connection with the Church there are flourishing Sunday schools in Suva and Levuka.

PRESBYTERIAN.

In September, 1883, a Presbyterian Church was established in Suva, the ministration being at first undertaken by the Rev. J. Lambie of Victoria, the permanent pastor, the Rev. L. W. Rennison, not arriving from Scotland until November, 1884. The church and manse are handsome buildings, erected at a cost of some £1200, the former being constructed to seat 200 persons. There is also a Sabbath school in connection with the church, having an average attendance of 50 children.

JEWISH.

The Jewish population of Fiji does not exceed 40 in number, and most of these are resident in the capital—Suva—where religious services are conducted by P. S. Solomon, Esq., who is also registered to celebrate marriages.

EDUCATION.

The educational wants of the Colony have been well provided for by an Ordinance of 1882, and an Amending Ordinance of 1885, under which the establishment and management of both Common and High Schools are provided for upon a similar basis to that adopted in the Australian Colonies. Common schools have already been established in Suva and Levuka under the supervision of experienced and certified masters and mistresses, assisted by pupil-teachers. The Inspector's latest report shows that the attendance at Suva and Levuka is respectively regular, and that the educational results are fairly satisfactory. There is also a weekday school for European children at Namosi. For the natives, the Wesleyan Mission have established day schools, at which some 42,000 children are being instructed. There is also established at Yanawai, Vanua Levu, a Native Industrial School, educating some 100 boys belonging to the northern provinces. The school is under European superintendence assisted by seven *gase ni voli*, or Fijian tutors. In addition to the usual scholastic subjects, the boys are here instructed in agricultural and pastoral pursuits; in carpenter's work, particularly as to boatbuilding, in this they quickly become fairly proficient. There are on view in the Exhibition a number of tools manufactured at this institution, and specimens of some sixty kinds of wood grown upon the estate. It is intended to establish a second school of this description for the southern provinces. A site has already been selected in the Province of Namosi, and within convenient distance of Suva.

INSTITUTIONS.

Churches—Church of England, Roman Catholic, Wesleyan, Presbyterian, and Jewish. Educational—Common schools at Suva and Levuka, Wesleyan College for Fijians and numerous day schools, Native Industrial School. Mechanics' Institutes—Suva and Levuka. Hospitals—Suva and Levuka. Lunatic Asylum. Labour Depots—Suva and Nukulau. Private Institutions consist of Clubs, Masonic Lodges, Mechanics' Institutes, Planters' Association, Chambers of Commerce, Good Templars' and Oddfellows' Lodges, Cricket and Tennis Clubs, Theatrical Associations, and Quadrille Assemblies. Newspapers—Fiji Times, Suva Times (bi-weekly), Polynesian Gazette (weekly), each with a circulation of about 350.

PLANTERS' ASSOCIATION.

This association was first formed in 1875 as the Agricultural Society of Fiji, with an influential member-roll. Its existence under this title was however changed in 1881 to the Planters' Association, and has since proved of considerable usefulness.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

A Chamber of Commerce was established in Suva in 1884. The member-roll includes all the prominent business men.

The Levuka Chamber was established in 1878. It is, financially, in a very prosperous state, and under careful management will prove of considerable value to the commercial interests of the Colony.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTES.

Suva.—Established in 1884. A large reading-room and library have been erected on land granted for the purpose by the Government. The Institute is managed by a committee elected each year. The library comprises some 600 volumes, and a large assortment of magazines and periodicals. The reading-room is spacious, well ventilated, and supplied with most of the leading English and Colonial newspapers.

Levuka.—The origin of this institute was a book club established in the very early days of settlement. The evolution took place in 1873, when an institute was built at considerable cost, providing Levuka with a good Town Hall, besides a capital reading-room and library. The library comprises some 3,000 volumes, and the reading room is supplied with the leading newspapers and serials.

MASONIC LODGES.

Masons are well represented in Fiji, lodges being established under both the English and Scottish Constitutions. The former in the Lodge of Fiji, No. 1931 E.C., meeting in Suva; the latter in Levuka by the Lodge of Polynesia, No. 562 S.C.

ODFELLOWS' LODGES.

There are two lodges of Oddfellows, under the Manchester Unity, in Fiji. Lodge of Fiji meets in Suva weekly. It has some forty members, and its funds amount to some £110. Loyal Star of Fiji Lodge meets weekly in Levuka, has 52 members, and funds amounting to some £520, and a hall worth £600.

GOOD TEMPLAR LODGES.

The Good Templars have also two lodges; the Hope of Fiji opened at Levuka in 1874, and having at present an enrolment of 53 members; the Southern Cross, opened in Suva in 1881, has about 60 members; the Good Templars' Hall in Suva is a well-found and very creditable building.

BANKS.

The Bank of New Zealand and the Union Bank of Australia have both established branches in Fiji. The former first opened in Levuka in 1876, when it took over the business of the Fiji Banking Company. The Union Bank opened in 1881.

ASSURANCE COMPANIES.

There are several Fire and Marine Companies and two Life Companies, having branches or agencies in Suva and Levuka. Lloyds have also established an agency in both towns.

FINANCIAL COMPANIES.

The New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Co., Limited, and the Australian Mortgage and Agency Co., Limited, are both conducting business in the Colony.

LABOUR.

There being no assisted European immigration to Fiji, the word "Labour," as applied to this Colony, refers only to Fijians and to Polynesian and Indian Immigrants introduced for household and plantation work. Each class will be considered separately.

INDIAN LABOUR.

In 1879, in answer to an experimental requisition by Governor Sir Arthur Gordon, the *Leonidas* brought to Fiji the first importation of Coolies; but planters did not at that time look with any favour on the new arrivals. It was not until the large sugar companies began operations about the year 1882 that the experiment was repeated on definite requisitions from planters. In that and subsequent years ten vessels arrived in the Colony, until there is now a total number of about 5,000 Indians in the group.

The average cost of an Indian adult has proved to run from £21 to £25 a head. He is recruited in India through the usual Emigration Agency system, and comes to Fiji for ten years, five of which he spends in the service of his original requisitioner, and the second five as a free man working where and how he pleases. At the end of ten years he is entitled, with wife and family, to a return passage to India at the expense of the Colony.

His wages are 1s. for each day he works; 9d. for the women, and children are paid in proportion to the work they do. The employer has also the option, largely availed of, of paying his Coolies by task-work. A daily task, such as an average good worker can finish in 6 hours' work, suits both employer and employé better than time-work. These tasks are regulated by and subject to constant inspection by the officers of the Immigration Department.

The quality of the Coolies imported into Fiji has varied with each vessel. Some ships have brought a fine working lot of men; others appear to have successfully relieved India of a surplus jail population. No doubt the past experience of Fiji planters, confined to quiet and more easily managed Polynesians and Fijians, has not been a good training for the working of Indians. The notorious litigiousness of these people has been a source of great annoyance to planters in Fiji, and has multiplied by ten the work in the District Courts. It may be hoped, however, that as time passes by, both Indians and their employers will become better able to form working traditions which will bind both sides by the bond of mutual advantage.

That Indian immigration to Fiji has on the whole been a success admits of no question; without Coolies none of the larger companies could carry on work. Several, indeed, have discarded Fijians and Polynesians entirely, and work with Indians alone, from whom Europeans can obtain ordinary and extraordinary work by the inducement of money, which offers few temptations to the unsophisticated Polynesian, but which appeals with annually increasing force to the Fijian.

Time-expired Indians are now setting up shops, market-gardening, running ferry-boats on the rivers, and carrying live-stock to the country markets. In a few years it may be anticipated, with a cessation of the depression and stagnation in trade which has weighed heavily on Fiji as on all sugar countries for the last year or two, that considerable strides will be made by the Indians towards the position they occupy in Mauritius and the West Indian Colonies.

Constitutionally, the Indian Coolie seems to adapt himself to whatever colony he emigrates to. The climate of Fiji appears to be admirably adapted to him, and, unlike the Polynesian, he has always formed one of the healthiest factors in the population of Fiji. They are, however, by no means such good workers as the Polynesians; while it would hardly be an exaggeration to say that the criminal statistics of the Colony date their existence from the arrival of the Coolies. It cannot but be regretted that, while due recognition is given to the value of the work performed by the Coolies, both on and off estates, the necessities of the Colony, no less than the crying claims of humanity, called for the substitution of Indian for Polynesian and Fijian labour.

POLYNESIAN LABOUR.

In addition to the Indian immigrant labourers there are at present in the Colony about 5,500 Polynesian immigrants. There are recruited from the neighbouring islands of the New Hebrides and Solomon Groups under Government supervision and control. Each immigrant is engaged for a term of three years for which period he is paid wages varying from £3 to £6 per annum, in addition to rations, clothes, allowances, and medical attendance. At the end of that term the immigrant is returned to his home if he so elects, or is again re-engaged from time to time for a period of a year. The immigrant may return home at the termination of any of his terms of indenture. It is found in practice that when an immigrant is returned to his home after serving a few years in the Colony he usually evinces a desire to return thither again. The cost of introduction of Polynesian immigrants may be set down at £16 per caput, which amount is payable by the employer to whom the immigrant is indentured for his first three years' service. Should the immigrant elect to return to his home at the end of that term, the cost of his return passage, amounting to from £5 to £7, is also payable by that employer. If, on the other hand, the immigrant should engage with an employer for another year, one-third of the return-passages money is payable by the original employer and two-thirds by the new employer. After the termination of his fourth year's service the immigrant may be engaged without the payment of any consideration apart from the engagement fee of 1s. beyond his wages. The wages usually paid to a labourer who has completed his fourth year average £10 to £12 per annum, the employer providing rations, clothing, and house accommodation according to the scale provided by the Legislature for Polynesian immigrants.

It cannot be said that Polynesian labour is really cheaper than that of the Indian immigrants, but being more docile and more trustworthy, the Polynesian is preferred to the Indian by most planters who have had experience in working them.

It has been found, however, that Polynesians are not sufficiently strong to undergo constant work in the sugar-cane fields, and the Government have therefore discouraged their employment by large sugar planters.

On the cocoa-nut and fruit plantations, on the other hand, these people are quite at home, and are generally preferred to any other class of labourers.

FIJIAN LABOUR.

In addition to the Indian and Polynesian immigrants employed on the plantations of the Colony, a number of native Fijians are also so engaged.

Under the local enactment regulating the employment of Fijian labour, a native may without any formality agree to serve on any plantation within his home district or proclaimed adjacency thereto, for any term not exceeding one month. A native desiring to be employed beyond his home district and adjacencies, or for a longer term than one month at a time, may do so with the consent of his town or tribe by registering his name with the Stipendiary Magistrate of his district, before whom the agreement between the native and the employer must be executed, and in whose presence the native must ultimately be paid off.

At the present time (February, 1886) there are about 600 native labourers engaged for a term of a year beyond their home districts, at rates of wages varying from £5 to £8 per annum.

With regard to the native labourer, however, it may be said that his occupation is gone. Eminently fitted for such work as clearing a plantation, his services were, on plantations being opened up, eagerly sought for; but now that work of this nature has for the most part been completed, the supply of native labour exceeds the demand. This state of things has been contributed to by the Fijian's high idea of his own importance as a labourer, and his exorbitant demands at a time when they had to be conceded. At the present time none of the principal planters will employ a Fijian unless other labour is unobtainable.

AGRICULTURE.

THE COCOANUT AND ITS PRODUCTS.

The cocoanut-tree is one of the most beautiful of the palms, and it is certainly the most generally valuable. It is grown altogether within the Tropics, but its favourite localities are on the low-lying coast lands of the West India Islands, tropical Africa, India, the Malayan Archipelago, Straits Settlements, and the Islands of the South Pacific. The cocoanut has been carefully cultivated for a good number of years in Ceylon, Coochin, Java, and various other places.

The South Sea Islands have been celebrated for many years for the vigorous growth of their cocoanut palms. These palms were not cultivated except in the most crude and primitive manner, yet, withal, the produce has been truly marvellous.

However, within the last ten years considerable attention has been called to this product, and a number of large plantations made. Since Fiji was created a British dependency large sums have been invested in planting and cultivating cocoanuts. The cultivation on many such plantations is thorough and systematic, and the appearance of those just coming into bearing is such as to gratify the planter and promise very handsome returns.

The most suitable situation for the full development of the cocoanut tree is near the sea, or at any rate well within the influence of the saline air, as salt in some form is essential to the vigorous development of the plant.

The smaller islands of Fiji, and the coasts of the larger islands, are peculiarly well suited to the cultivation of the cocoanut, as here you have the sea breeze blowing all the year round over your land and trees. Sandy beach flats, almost level with the sea, are the favourite haunts of the cocoanut, and there its greatest vigour is attained.

The more elevated lands when near the sea are also eminently suited to it, especially if the geological formation be coral or well-disintegrated volcanic rock. Some persons have asserted that the tree will not thrive nor bear fruit at any great elevation above sea-level. This may be true on very large islands or continents, but the opposite has been proved in Fiji, where in the far interior of Viti Levu cocoanut trees bear well. It therefore may be considered as certain that in the parts of Fiji suitable, and where soil, &c., is favourable, the cocoanut tree will flourish well inland and up to, at least, an elevation of 500 feet.

The mode of cultivation is as follows:—Get your land in the right place—timber land if possible, being the richer—clear and burn off as you would for any other crop, taking care to burn stumps well, otherwise they will soon come to jungle again. Heavy trunks and limbs of trees may rot on ground.

When you commence clearing, select the nuts you intend to plant, so that they may be in the nursery sprouting, and be particular that you plant the sort you especially desire. Having selected your seed-nuts (you can purchase such nuts from £2 to £3 per thousand), and having placed them in your shady nursery to germinate, you may push on your preparation of the land. Some nuts are large with little husks, these are the best for copra making; others are all husk and little kernel, these give the larger return of fibre. The average, or most common kind of nut, produces a fairly large kernel with a medium quantity of husk or fibre. This variety, taking it all round, is the best to select from.

From 25 to 30 feet apart, according to situation, may be taken as the correct distance to plant; the former on high lands, the latter near the sea beach. If planted 25 feet apart you will have 70 trees per acre, but if 30 feet apart you have 50 per acre. There is some advantage as to space in planting in the mode called "Quincunx"—that is, one in each corner, and one in the middle of a square, so : - : , which system, carried through a plantation, will give more room to the trees for the space occupied than by any other method.

Having marked with pegs the spots for your trees, dig holes at least 2 feet deep and 3 feet in diameter, the soil from each being thrown up all round it.

Advantage should be taken of a wet or showery day to plant your sprouted nuts. This is

done by holding the sprout erect in one hand, and with the other digging with a pointed stick a little soil round off the sides of the hole on to the nut until it is just covered; then press the soil firmly down and the work is done. Thus the holes are left, only partially filled with soil, the intention of which is that as the young plant grows the rain very slowly and gradually fills in the soil, so that at the end of twelve or eighteen months the holes are full, and your young tree has made a fine start in growth.

It is an economical plan to plant some other crop amongst your young nuts for the first two or three years when they are small. Sea Island cotton has been usually selected for this purpose, as it does not impoverish the land much, and it gives a quick return. Beans, pea-nuts, or kumalas may be planted if preferred. If cotton is put in, you can plant three rows of it between each row of nuts. You will thus weed and keep clean two crops at the same trouble and expense, and this crop should at least pay for the whole cultivation during the term you keep it on the ground.

You will find it necessary to pull up your cotton in the third year, as by that time your cocoanuts will have attained such a size as to throw too much shade on the cotton. After this, for another year or two, you should keep well weeded a space round each tree of six feet at least, and have the soil in that space stirred up occasionally. About the eighth year you cannot do better than turn in a herd of cattle to your nut plantations, as by that time the trees will be out of reach of mischief. This small herd of cattle—say 20 to every hundred acres—will be more useful than as many men, as the cattle keep down grass weeds, scrub, &c., and they manure and improve the ground. After this time, until you begin to collect your nuts, one man to every 25 acres will be all that is necessary; his duty will be to remove dead leaves off the trees, collect them in heaps, and keep down vines and jungle.

A cocoanut has been known to flower in about four years, and others at longer periods, but a fair crop of fruit need not be calculated on before the tenth or twelfth year, after which the yield increases steadily for five or six years more, when the maximum should be arrived at; it then continues bearing heavy crops for fifty and even sixty years.

Taking the produce in Fiji at 60 nuts per tree per year, an acre would give, say 4,200 nuts. This would make about two-thirds of a ton of copra, the average value of which is about £7 10s., from which deduct the expense of collecting and manufacture, which is about £2 10s., which leaves a profit of £5 per acre. It may be added that copra is shipped to Europe, where it sells at from £16 to £20 per ton. And it must be remembered that in the above calculation no account is taken of the husk or pericarp, which, by the use of the proper machinery, is manufactured into coir fibre, and is of considerable value.

As to the cost of land, and the expense in labour, &c., entailed to bring a cocoanut plantation up to the bearing point, a rate cannot well be fixed, as many causes may operate to vary the amount. Land may be purchased at a low or a high figure. Labour may be well and economically used, while, on the other hand, it may be wasted most enormously. Taking the above into consideration, the cost per acre for bringing a cocoanut plantation into full bearing may vary from £20 to £40 per acre; it may be done for £20, but it might take £40.

If, therefore, a person has capital to purchase say 500 acres suitable cocoanut land in the proper locality, to clear, plant, and cultivate 500 acres of cocoanut trees up to full-bearing point, he may calculate on an income of at least £3,000 per annum as the combined profits of copra, fibre, and cattle.

As to the value elsewhere of full-bearing cocoanut plantations, a reference to the Ceylon newspapers will show that sales of such properties there are never made under £100 per acre, and often much more.

Of all crops none perhaps gives so little anxiety to the planter as cocoanuts. The tree is troubled with few if any diseases. Its enemies are few and easily disposed of. Whether it rains or keeps fair matters little, as the tree still grows and flourishes, and the fruit is continually falling. Suppose the planter has another crop, such as sugar, coffee, or tea, that requires great attention and a press of labour at certain times in the year, he can withdraw all the hands from his cocoanut plantation and keep them away for three months, and no bad result will follow further than there will be three months' accumulation of nuts on the ground ready for gathering.

Probably no crop or product is to be found where so large a return is obtainable at so small a risk as that of cocoanuts. In Fiji, where the cocoanut thrives so luxuriantly, it is without doubt destined to be, with sugar, coffee, and tea, a great source of wealth.

Amongst other products of the cocoanut tree that of fibre is probably the second in value, the kernel of the nut standing first.

Most persons are aware that the cocoanut has an outer covering or husk. This husk is removed by the clever use of a steel-pointed stick stuck in the ground, and then placed in large tanks filled with water; steam is then applied, and they are allowed to soak for twelve to twenty-four hours.

They are then passed through between very powerful fluted metal rollers, which flattens them out to some extent and softens the woody matter they contain.

From this the husks are passed to the "devil," which is a machine having a large cylinder or drum filled with sharp steel teeth. The cylinder is driven by steam power at a very high speed, and the teeth operating on the husk reduces it to coir fibre.

There are different kinds of "devils" or coir machines. Some in use in Fiji have been made in Sydney, and do their work fairly. These machines, however, turn out only one quality of coir.

On the other hand, there are a number of very superior English-made coir machines, which turn out coir of various qualities and in very marketable condition.

The market hitherto for the coir fibre made in Fiji has been Australia and New Zealand; but as the production increases, a market will have to be found amongst the greater centres of population.

The husks from 7,000 cocoanuts produce about one ton fibre, which is of the value on the estate in Fiji of from £5 to £15 per ton, according to quality. Brush fibre or bristles is worth from £15 to £30 per ton, and yarn from £20 to £30 per ton in Fiji.

The cost of labour to produce one ton fibre, exclusive of cost and wear of machinery, may be put down at from £5 to £10.

CINCHONA.

Of all tropical products this, perhaps, is the most valuable. There are many kinds, but those most generally planted are:—

1. *Cinchona Succirubra*.
2. *Cinchona Calisaya*.
3. *Cinchona Officinalis*.

The chief advantage which the cultivation of *Cinchona* possesses over most other products is the immense difference which exists between the cost of the production and the market value of the bark which is caused by—

1. The narrow limits within which *Cinchona* can be grown with success;
2. The comparatively light labour required to cultivate it; and
3. The ever-increasing demand.

The commercial value of the bark is due to the many alkaloids it contains, such as—

1. Quinine.
2. Cinchonine.
3. Cinchonidine.
4. Quinidine, &c.

It is unnecessary here to detail the various uses of these alkaloids; let it suffice to say that, in all parts of the world, quinine is considered (and very justly) one of the most important medicines now in use, and in fever-stricken countries it has especially proved its value by saving the lives of thousands. In Ceylon, India, and South America, *Cinchona* has proved a great success, although the climate and the soil are by no means as favourable as in Fiji.

The characteristic of Fiji is sunshine and gentle refreshing showers all through the year; and, although there are wet and dry seasons, there are always breaks of fine weather through the former, and delicious showers during the latter.

This is one of the causes of the wonderfully rapid growth of the tree above the ground, and the exceptionally large roots beneath.

There are in all parts of the Fiji group many well-timbered slopes and well-sheltered valleys where the Cinchona will thrive in a way unknown in any other part of the world. Here, with a moderate rainfall of from 90 to 140 inches extended right through the year, with a rich volcanic surface soil, and a loose friable sub-soil, and with complete shelter from any boisterous winds, the Cinchona thrives with wonderful vigour and an amazing growth for their age far surpassing anything to be seen in Asia.

The great contrast between the places shows that a tree here has at maturity at least gained a year upon its kin in Ceylon or India, so that a tree of four years' old will give better promise in Fiji than those planted elsewhere. This is shown by fifty trees (*Succirubra*) that were at this age cut on Savu Savu Estate, Serua District, and from which 188 lbs. of stem bark were obtained.

All this leads to the conviction that, from a seven-year-old tree, the yield would be more in quantity, and equal, if not superior, in quality to that of eight years in other countries.

The kinds now growing in Fiji are "*Succirubra*" and "*Calisaya*," magnificent specimens of which may be seen at Serua, Navua, and Tavuni.

The trees here begin seeding when about eighteen to twenty-four months' old, and, owing to the peculiar climate and soil, most of the seeds, on falling to the ground, grow under their parent tree. This is remarkable, as, owing to the great delicacy of the seed, immense care has to be taken to rear plants, and (with the exception of a few plants here and there) this never happens to any great extent but in Fiji.

The ordinary method of planting Cinchona is to take the young plants when about eight inches high and plant them out in rows six feet by six feet, which gives about 1200 to the acre. After they are planted there is very little expense in a Cinchona plantation—only weeding and occasionally trimming the trees.

Although the price of bark is much lower compared with what it was a few years ago, still the profits are very large, and at the end of the eighth year the planter should have received at least £200 to £350 per acre, clear of the expenses of the culture, lopping, felling, barking, &c., &c. This really amounts to from £25 to £40 per acre per year, and that for every year from the commencement.

Good, well-watered land near the sea can now be purchased at very low prices, in places where the soil, climate, elevation, and rainfall suit exactly the cultivation of Cinchona.

Here a planter who can afford to wait for the returns for seven years cannot do better than open out a Cinchona plantation; whilst, for one whose capital is too small to enable him to wait, there are many products, such as tobacco, corn, ginger, cardamoms, bananas, &c., which he could plant as well, and on the immediate returns of which he might live until the Cinchona would be fit to cut. For the capitalist who requires good interest for his money and a healthy, pleasant life, there are few places like Fiji.

COFFEE.

Perhaps no tropical industry offers more genuine attractions to a man possessed of ordinary business ability, with a taste for agricultural pursuits, than does that of coffee-planting.

In even the most unhealthy of tropical countries, coffee-planting, from its having to be conducted at a considerable elevation above sea-level, is, as compared with the majority of tropical pursuits, regarded as a peculiarly salutary and agreeable occupation. In Fiji, however, the exceptionally healthful character of the country obviates the institution of any such comparison.

The coffee industry is no longer in its infancy in Fiji. Questions with regard to soil natural fertility, elevation, and shelter, having now been proved by the experience of pioneer planters, may be regarded as settled, and any one now opening up a coffee plantation in Fiji need no longer run the risks attending experiment in these directions.

That the country is one specially adapted to the growth of the coffee plant is attested by Mr. John Horne, F.L.S., Director of the Botanical Gardens, Mauritius, who, in his 'Remarks on the Agricultural Prospects of Fiji,' writes as follows:—

"In Fiji there is a large extent of land which from a variety of causes is better adapted for growing coffee than any other tropical product. The greater portion of this land lies in the interior of Viti Levu, Vanua Levu, Taviuni, some portions of Rabi, Ovalau, &c. These islands contain large areas of almost incomparably fine coffee land, and enjoy a climate which is at once healthy and well adapted for the growth of the coffee tree, plant, or bush. Next to sugar-cane growing, that of coffee will in future years claim a large share of attention. Coffee growing is now in its infancy in Fiji. It will yearly extend and become an important product of these islands. Coffee will be second to none except sugar in value; its export value will ultimately attain to about a million and a-half or to two millions sterling per annum. The plants of coffee seen in the interior of Viti Levu, Vanua Levu, and Taviuni were remarkably healthy looking; indeed the healthy appearance of the plants prove that coffee will succeed in Fiji beyond a doubt."

The peculiarity of the country in this respect is manifested in the matter of altitude, which differs materially from that necessary in other countries. Experienced planters from Ceylon say that 1000 feet in Fiji is equal to about 3500 feet in Ceylon, while coffee on the coast lands yields well, but gives a smaller berry.

Cultivation in other respects varies very little from that pursued in other coffee-producing countries, but great regard ought to be paid to the shelter afforded to the plantation from the south-east trade winds, and no shade trees ought to be left, as coffee does better in the open.

Seed, when planted in the ordinarily careful way, quickly germinates, and the seedlings are fit for use in seven months. If planted out in October or November it will yield a maiden crop of four cwts. per acre in about two and a-half years, while it has already been proved that almost any weight up to fifteen cwts. per acre may be picked in successive years according to variations in climate, soil, and weather.

Wide planting, too, will be found advantageous, but the distance ought to be regulated by the rankness of the soil, which, being in many places volcanic, causes the primaries to overlap in the third year when planted six feet apart.

Topping, likewise, must be regulated by position, and in well-sheltered places five feet is not too high to allow, especially where the soil is volcanic.

Handling and pruning, if taken in time, will require only ordinary attention, but must on no account be neglected.

Buildings of a substantial character can be erected at a moderate cost, fine hard wood being plentiful in the jungle, and easily sawn by Polynesian or other labour on the estate, while lime is made from the coral which abounds on the coast.

The coffee-leaf disease, which some four years ago threatened to crush the coffee industry throughout the world, may now be said to have all but disappeared from Fiji.

Experience has shown that it may best be resisted by high cultivation, and for this purpose the incomparably rich soil of the group offers facilities that cannot elsewhere be met with.

On the Island of Taviuni, for instance, which, on account of position and fertility, seems to have been specially selected as a field for the coffee industry in Fiji, the disease is rarely to be met with. Of this island Mr. F. B. Thurber, in his 'Coffee from Plantation to Cup,' remarks:—"In the Island of Taviuni in the Fiji group there are some half-dozen coffee estates, ranging in area from fifty to three hundred acres. Coffee trees are just coming into bearing (1880). At the Sydney Exhibition the first gold medal was awarded to an exhibit of coffee from Fiji."

On the Island of Taviuni is also erected the principal curing mill in the Colony. The site is a dry one, fully exposed to the sun. Extensive drying-grounds, and upwards of 3000 square feet of wire-netting on reapers, are provided for drying and preserving the coffee. The capacity of the mill is a turn-out of 2400 lbs. of clean coffee per hour.

The following figures show the quantities of coffee exported during the past five years:—1881, 104,524 lbs.; 1882, 62,328 lbs.; 1883, 210,204 lbs.; 1884, 86,065 lbs.; 1885, 85,239 lbs.

COTTON.

Sea Island Cotton was the first means of bringing the Fiji Islands under the eyes of the outside world. The commencement of this industry was due to Dr. Brower, for many years the Official Representative in the group of the United States of America, who, in the year 1863, planted the first Sea Island cotton grown in the present Colony of Fiji. In the year 1865 this Sea Island cotton was sold in seed to a trading vessel at eight cents a pound, which would be about equivalent in those bygone days to two shillings a pound for clean ginned cotton.

The soils most suitable to the growth of Sea Island cotton are rich sandy flats encircling the different islands; also a black loam and chocolate soils on swift sides. Care must be taken in choosing the land, as the richer the soil so much better will be the yield. Great mistakes were made by early settlers in choosing grass land, as the cost of clearing and planting it was much lower than on heavily-timbered land.

Suitable land may be got from £2 to £4 per acre, and the cost for the first year of putting in one hundred acres, clearing, burning off, planting, dwellings, and then keeping the land properly weeded, would cost, with proper management, from £9 to £12 an acre. The yield for the first year is comparatively small. In February in each year prune the cotton trees right through the whole plantation, about five months after the picketing commences; this will take from two and a half to three months. Some years a second crop is taken off the trees in January and February; the drawback to this, however, is that it throws it out of season for the ensuing year.

Cotton planting should be done in the latter end of November and December. The yield per acre in the second year is, on an average season, from eighty to ninety pounds of clean cotton per acre, and the expenses of working second year are considerably reduced by having laid out in the first year capital in importing labour, expenses of clearing, erection of dwellings, &c. The trees planted for the first year can remain for a third, and the crop from these will be almost as large as in the second year. After the crop is finished, pull up the trees and replant between the rows. Experience here is that cotton may profitably be grown on the same land without manuring for fully twenty years.

GREEN FRUIT.

The trade in green fruit with the neighbouring Australasian Colonies may be said to have commenced in earnest in the year 1877, on the occasion of a monthly line of steamers between Levuka and Sydney being subsidized by the Colonial Government. Predictions made at the time of the commencement of the subsidy that the trade would rise to be one of considerable importance have, although then met with incredulity, been fully verified, the value of fruit exported having increased from £507 10s. in 1877 to £23,994 17s. 6d. in 1885. The class of fruit exported has hitherto been limited to pine-apples and bananas; but the great numbers of mango trees introduced into the Colony within recent years, many of which are now about coming into bearing, justify the hope that this export will shortly be extended.

The bananas are, to a great extent, grown by natives, and bought from them by the European shippers at a price varying from 9d. to 1s. 6d. per bunch. The freight to Sydney, Melbourne, and Auckland is 1s. per bunch, and the fruit is sold in those markets at a price varying from 3s. to 5s. per bunch.

The pine-apples are almost exclusively grown on the plantations of Europeans. The productive powers of the Colony in respect to the growth of fruit are unlimited. Oranges, limes, citrons, lemons, guavas, and other fruits grow in a wild state throughout the country, attention not having yet turned to the profit which might be derived from the systematic cultivation of those products.

As these articles have proved a source of wealth in the West Indies, and in the tropical and sub-tropical countries, it may be anticipated that they will not for a much longer space of time be neglected here.

The growth of the fruit trade will be seen from the following statistics :—

Year.	Total Value.		Dried Fruit.	Green Fruit.		
				Pines.	Bananas.	Pines.
	£	s. d.	Cases.	Loose.	Bunches.	Cases.
1875	97	10 0	—	—	—	292
1876	128	0 0	9	9,600	2,000	121
1877	507	10 0	47	183	3,100	425
1878	2,097	16 0	1	800	21,316	1,746
1879	3,150	9 0	4	—	43,069	1,986
1880	5,215	19 0	26	—	79,409	2,419
1881	5,469	19 0	43	—	73,583	3,100
1882	9,139	16 0	17	—	124,242	5,668
1883	15,428	7 6	1	—	171,237	5,760
1884	19,710	9 0	—	—	228,784	4,259
1885	23,994	19 6	89	—	277,973	5,095

LIVE STOCK.

Although the Colony of Fiji is situated within the Tropics, it is peculiarly suitable for the raising of stock, more especially of horned cattle and horses. Being insular, the temperature seldom exceeds 90° Fah., or falls below 60° Fah., so that there is no necessity at any time to house cattle; and the natural grasses, although perhaps not equal to the English varieties, have nevertheless most nourishing and fattening properties; and the rainfall, though seldom excessive, is such as to maintain the vegetation in a luxuriant growth throughout the year, and the creeks and water-courses furnish a plentiful and constant supply of water.

The above remarks apply equally to horses and mules; both thrive well on the natural grasses, but of course, as elsewhere, when performing hard or extra labour they require corn—this can, however, be grown on the plantations.

As a rule, in hot countries sheep deteriorate both as to fleece and flesh; but the comparatively cool and temperate climate of Fiji appears to exempt them therefrom, and some districts are very favourable for such stock.

Goats and pigs do well in every part of Fiji.

All animals have hitherto been entirely free from diseases, nor is there any reason to anticipate disease amongst the herds.

The Registrar-General's returns for 1884 gives the following as the number of live stock then in the Colony :—Horses, 610; Cattle, 4518; Sheep, 5869; Angora Goats (ewes), 11,429; Pigs, 50,000.

MAIZE OR INDIAN CORN

grows in any part of the Fijian Archipelago. It takes about four months from the date of planting until it is fit for export; the best months in which to plant are from April to July, and by planting early, and ploughing and re-planting the fields immediately the first crop has been housed, a second crop may be obtained within the year.

Alluvial flats of river banks will yield average crops of about 50 bushels per acre. I say average crops, as 80 to 100 bushels per acre have been obtained.

The natives of Viti Levu grow large quantities of very superior maize for the purpose of paying their yearly assessed Government taxes. It being an article of easy agriculture, the Fijians have taken very kindly to its production for the above purpose only; as an article of food they do not care for it, and it is very seldom a Fijian native will be seen eating Indian corn.

The home consumption of the article has, however, considerably increased within the past few years, and it is now extensively used as a culinary article, and as food for horses and poultry.

The following statement shows the quantity of maize exported from the Colony during the past five years:—1881, 34,248 bushels; 1882, 19,320 bushels; 1883, 20,380 bushels; 1884, 12,720; 1885, 15,660 bushels.

A good deal of the maize-growing land has of late years been planted with sugar-cane.

SUGAR.

In placing before the public the salient features of the sugar industry of Fiji, it will not be necessary to dwell on its earliest stages. It will suffice to state that, prior to 1875, in which year these islands were acquired by Great Britain, only one or two mills of small capacity were at work. This condition of things continued with but little improvement till 1881. In that year the Colonial Sugar Refining Company of Sydney, encouraged by certain facilities offered to it by Government, and the guarantees which intending planters willingly gave, decided to erect a large central factory in the district through which runs that broad and navigable river, the Rewa. Other companies, as well as some private individuals, also began about this time to turn their attention to the cultivation of the rich alluvial flats which are to be found along the course of other watersheds. Moreover, on more than one of the islands of the group, the extensive areas of purely volcanic soil were found admirably adapted to the growth of the sugar-cane, and have accordingly been utilised for the purpose. With such vigour have these several enterprises been conducted, that at this time of writing there are no less than twelve mills in existence, having an aggregate power equal to the production of 30,000 tons of dry sugar during the seven months from June to December, which constitute the best season for crushing.

Before proceeding to show what results have been and are being obtained, it is advisable to say a few words concerning the system by which the mills receive their supply of cane. In every instance a certain quantity of the cane required is grown by the mill-owner himself on land of his own. But in some instances his chief supply is obtained from the planters of the district, with whom he enters into contracts, the chief terms of which are, that they shall cultivate a certain area for a certain number of years, and that he shall pay them for the produce at a price varying according to circumstances, from 10s. to 12s. 6d. a ton, delivery being taken by him at the plantation. To give some idea of the magnitude of these operations, it may be stated that there are no less than thirteen plantations thus affiliated to the Colonial Sugar Refining Co. alone, and that for the purpose of bringing the cane to their mill from a limit of fifteen miles above and ten miles below it, it is found necessary to keep two powerful steamers, six steam-tugs, and some fifty lighters, capable of carrying forty tons each, in constant employment. On other estates, where land carriage is used, many miles of permanent tramway have been laid down, and long lines of laden trucks are drawn by locomotives to the rollers. It should be added that the plantations vary in area from 50 to 700 acres, while the fact that planters are desirous of extending their cultivation to the utmost would seem to furnish sufficient proof that, so far, their efforts have been attended with success. It is also a gratifying circumstance that some of the native landowners have in no less than five districts, at the instance and under the supervision of Government, followed the example of the European planters, and undertaken the supply of varying quantities of cane, under similar conditions, to the factory.

Climate.—The climate varies considerably in different parts of the group; but results obtained in each of the several districts prove that they are all suited to the profitable growth of sugar-cane and production of sugar. In what are termed the wet districts, no long rainless periods occur; the heaviest rainfalls, however, take place between January and April, and the annual average is about 110 inches. In the dry regions of the group the rainfall rarely exceeds 60 inches, most of it being during the above-mentioned months. Experience has shown that, although in the latter districts there is a slight falling off in the quantity of the sugar-cane, the loss is made up by its superior quality.

Cultivation.—The mode of cultivation is undergoing rapid changes. As the new lands are cleared, the expensive manual labour necessary at the outset is superseded by ploughs, horses, and in some cases steam-power. The land being virgin, manure will not be required for many years, as the soil which has been lying idle for centuries unexposed to atmospheric influences actually improves from season to season by being drained and turned up, and thus subjected to the beneficial influences of sun, wind, and rain. Lands which have been under cultivation for the last twelve or thirteen years are still yielding an average annual crop of 25 tons to the acre without assistance from manure of any sort.

Returns.—As the reader will readily understand, much depends on the pains and skill bestowed on the cultivation of the crop. Plant-cane eighteen months old has been known to yield as much as 70 tons to the acre; but taking one season with another, and assuming the crop to consist of two-thirds ratoons and one-third plant-canes, it is not safe to reckon on more than 28 tons to the acre, and in some instances far higher results are obtained. However, taking the figures mentioned, it will be seen that the planter can with safety rely upon a gross profit of £14 at least, whereas with prudence the cost of cultivation, *when the plantation has been opened up*, will not exceed £10 10s. The capital required to open up an estate of 100 acres so as to produce the above results, will not exceed £2700.

With the most modern appliances for manufacturing, the yield of sugar is at the rate of 8 per cent. of the quantity of cane passed through the rollers, and the cost of producing the ton of sugar is £10.

It must not be supposed that all the land available for the profitable cultivation of sugar has already been turned to account. There is yet room for more than one central factory; but what the writer wishes most particularly to state is, that suitable areas of from 200 to 500 acres are to be found in many localities, and that any man with industry and a knowledge of the business who chooses to acquire an area commensurate with his means, and erect thereon a mill having a crushing capacity equal to the yield from his fields, has the promise of a happy and prosperous existence.

SUGAR EXPORTED.—1875 to 1885 (inclusive).

Year.			Tons.	cwt.	qrs.	lbs.
1875	6,129 Bags (about)	153	0	0 0
1876	13,681 Bags and 46 tons	388	0	0 0
1877	482	0	0 0
1878	548	5	0 0
1879	785	0	0 0
1880	593	5	0 0
1881	683	19	0 0
1882	1,731	1	3 27
1883	5,163	9	0 22
1884	8,728	19	1 17
1885	10,586	9	2 10
1886	Estimated at	16,000	0	0 0

TEA.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea in Fiji is of such recent date, that some account of its growth and manufacture may be thought worthy of notice. As most people doubtless are aware, the Colony of Fiji consists of many islands, which differ materially in climate, soil, rainfall, &c.

In selecting a site for a tea estate the following points ought to be carefully considered:—

Climate.—Moist, with a rainfall of at least 150 inches distributed impartially throughout the year, so that there shall be no dry or wet season, while sunshine is also as necessary as rain.

Elevation.—Experiments have proved that from 800 to 1200 feet above the sea-level is most favourable.

Aspect.—Shelter is a great desideratum, although exposure to the prevailing winds has not so bad an effect on this plant as on coffee, cocoa, &c. An undulating lay of land, protected from the south-eastern trade-winds, must be sought, and care should be exercised that no steep sides be planted, as the expense of terracing and draining to prevent the soil washing away should be avoided.

Soils.—Tea flourishes on many kinds of soil, but naturally grows most luxuriantly on rich deep loam, or on volcanic soil interspersed with scoria.

Seed.—Assam hybrid is the best sort to plant, and a good quality is now obtainable in the Colony at a reasonable figure; this is advantageous and economical, owing to seed being liable to perish quickly if not planted when fresh—indeed, not one-tenth of that imported from Ceylon germinated.

The seed should be planted in beds with soil well dug up about nine inches, and free from roots and stones; it takes from six to eight weeks to make its appearance.

Estate.—Having selected and purchased the land considered suitable, it is well, at once, to put up houses according to your means, and to form and plant nurseries to the extent you estimate will supply by more than a third the amount of land you intend to prepare.

A decent house of wood, containing three rooms and a pantry, with a 10-foot verandah front and back, can be put up for about £200; one end of front verandah being made into an office, and one end of back verandah being made into a store-room for provisions.

The house and hospital for the labourers must also be erected, if possible, of substantial material, which is found far cheaper in the end than native-made buildings; such houses for 20 men would cost about £150, and as by law each labourer must have 300 cubic feet in his house, and hospital accommodation at 800 cubic feet each, for 10 per cent. of the labourers employed, the size of such buildings will be determined by the number of men employed.

Your land, which ought to be covered with trees and undergrowth, must now be cleared, four boys being sent with sharp knives to cut undergrowth, and twenty following with axes to fell and lop the trees, their task being one acre per diem.

Having allowed the land thus felled to remain for six or eight weeks, according to the weather, you then send fifteen men per acre to clear up and burn off, it being difficult in Fiji to get a running fire.

Roads and Drains.—The planter now has an opportunity of tracing and making his roads and drains. Great attention should be paid to these operations, as they are works that should be placed to capital account, and on the good formation of them will depend to a large extent the reduction of current expenditure in future years; a road tracer should be used, and the lay of the land should be well studied, as the same gradient should, if possible, be taken over all the estate.

The expenditure, however, for these operations should be almost nominal, owing to the soil in most parts being so porous as to require little drainage, while the lay of the land is generally easy of gradient.

Lining.—This operation comes next, and requires great care. Much afterthought and anxiety are spared the planter if his estate is laid off in blocks, and the lining is straight, as task-work can be more easily given, and supervision will be rendered far easier.

Lining should always be done with wire rope, to prevent contraction by wet; three or four feet apart each way is best for tea; circumstances must, however, guide the planter.

Holing and Planting.—The soil is so rich, deep, and free, that planting has been successfully done at stake; but where holes are necessary, a man will cut 150 to 250 a day, 12 by 9, where there are few stones. In planting, the tap root should not be bent, and the surface soil should be used to fill in, and be firmly pressed down, making the whole surface level to prevent rain from lodging.

Weeding.—This should be done regularly every six or eight weeks, with at the most four men to the acre; if left longer, far more men will be required.

Buildings.—A large flat, not far from the dwelling-house, and near the middle of the estate, should be chosen for the tea buildings. At first, one house with three floors will be sufficient, but it ought to be made capable of being extended at both ends, as a large space is required for withering the leaf. These floors ought to be fitted round the sides and in the centre with drying trays, while on the ground floor the drying and rolling machines may be placed. This building should have hot-air pipes in addition to the heat from the driers, as in wet weather great difficulty and delay occur in withering the leaf. These buildings will have to be enlarged from time to time, according to requirements of estate.

Manufacture.—As machinery is now so extensively used, it is unnecessary to say more than that the roller ought to be at first hand power, and the drier ought to burn any kind of fuel.

Yield.—Owing to the richness of the soil and the genial climate, the minimum yield ought not to be less than 400 lbs. per acre, while an average of 600 lbs. may be looked for when in full bearing.

The tea already manufactured from the first estate has gained such universal favour that it sells readily from two to three shillings a pound, and the demand is at present far in excess of the supply.

TIMBER.

There are a great number of valuable timber trees in the forests of Fiji, nearly all being of handsome colour, fine grain, with capacity for taking high polish, and therefore particularly suitable for cabinet work or furniture making. The best known and most useful are:—The Vesi (*Azelia bijuga*), a supply of which is plentiful. It is a durable timber, hard and heavy, is evenly grained, and of a dark brown colour. It is used by the natives in the construction of their canoes and as pillars for houses. It is used by European settlers for all purposes where strength and durability are required. Damanu (*Calophyllum bunnant*) is perhaps the timber next mostly used in the Colony. It is of a light brown colour, veined handsomely, and is tough and strong. It is largely used for house building, and is far from difficult to work. The Dakua (*Dammara vitiensis*) is a similar timber to the Kauri pine of New Zealand, but attains a much more considerable size. It is useful for a variety of purposes, and in quality is equal to pine. Makadré, a gum-resin used for lighting purposes by the Fijians, is obtained from this tree. Dakua salu salu (*Podocarpus vitiensis*) is a durable timber. It is of a light brown colour and will take a high polish. This timber is in very general use, particularly for boat-building purposes. Dilo (*Calophyllum inophyllum*) is a timber of a light brown colour, beautifully veined, takes a high polish, and is very suitable for cabinet work. "Tacamahaca," or Dilo oil, which is in high repute as a cure for rheumatics, is obtained from the seed of this tree. Bua-bua (*Guetarda speciosa*) is a hard heavy wood of a light yellow colour, similar to, and much resembling box-wood. In consequence of its great durability it is much used in Fiji for house piles. Yavo, or Tavu tavu, is a hard heavy wood, very durable, and used for the same purpose as Bua-bua. Sigali (*Lumnitzera coccinea*) is a hard wood, and being durable in water and not subject to the attacks of insects, is much valued for piles. It grows in the mangrove swamps on the sea coast. Rosawa, a very tough sound wood and most durable. It is greatly in use for boats, planks, oars, &c. Vai vai (*Serianthes vitiensis*), tough light wood makes excellent boat planks. Vau (*Hibiscus tiliaceus*), tough light wood, used for boat timbers, knees, &c. Bau vudi (*Euphorbiaceæ*) somewhat resembles Australian cedar, but is of a tougher nature, and much used in boat-building for planks, &c. Koka damu (*Bischofia speciosa*), a hard dark red wood, durable, and standing exposure to the weather. It is used by Fijians as pillars in house construction. Yasi (*Eugenia effusa*), of which there are several species, is a good useful timber for house-building purposes. Caukalon, or Yaka (*Casuarina*), a dark brown timber, very handsomely grained, taking a high polish. Bau loa (*Euphorbiaceæ*), a hard heavy wood of great strength and durability. Sandalwood was at one time plentiful in various parts of Fiji; but in the early days of settlement its destruction must have been most indiscriminate. Of recent years its conservation has received legislative attention. Mr. John Horne, F.L.S., in his work 'A Year in Fiji,' recommends the setting apart of land in large areas for forest reserves, and says:—"In addition to its own indigenous forest products, there cannot be a doubt that the soil and climate of Fiji will greatly favour the growth and bring to perfection the products of other tropical countries, such as *teak*, ebony, sal, satinwood, *logwood*, *mahogany*, *sissou*, rosewood, *camphor*, the South American *caoutchouc* trees, the *gutta-percha* tree, &c. *Nutmegs*, *cloves*, *cinnamon*, *camphor*, *allspice*, &c., might be grown in the forests as forest produce, as a means of making them remunerative. These articles would scarcely pay the expense of cultivation in regular plantations; but when they can be grown in a semi-wild state they are highly remunerative. In this case the only expenses would be planting and protecting the trees, and gathering the produce—ordinary forest expenses.

The trees above named, printed in italics, have, with many others of high economic value, already been introduced and established in the Colony.

TOBACCO.

The bulk of the tobacco produced in Fiji is grown by the natives, and it is their mode of cultivation and preparation that this paper describes.

Tobacco flourishes in all the Islands of Fiji, but is most largely cultivated, and reaches its greatest perfection in the "Colo," or Highland Provinces of Viti Levu, the largest island of the group.

It has been asserted by some writers on Fiji, that tobacco is an indigenous plant; but this may safely be denied. Its name is a standing proof to the contrary, it being nearly universally called throughout the group, "tavako"; in parts, it is called "kuvu-kuvu," which is equivalent to our word "smoke."

It is believed that it was originally introduced from Manilla long ago. Vessels from that place traded to Fiji in the very earliest times. There were considerable settlements of Manilla men, and the remnants of them still remain. In Colo the natives admit that it is an imported plant. They got it, they say, from the coast, and it was some time before they knew of its use. They called it "Dumutu ni vavalagi," or white man's dumutu, from its resemblance to a native plant of that name. At first they only cultivated it for its flower, which they used for making chaplets and decking their hair with. Children were forbidden to touch it for fear it should cause disease in them. This was on account of its being a foreign plant. In former times all newly introduced plants were regarded with the same superstition. The now universal common China banana was at first called "the banana of sickness," and for a long time nobody would touch it.

As the "Kai Colo," or mountaineers of Viti Levu, are the largest and most skillful growers of the weed, it would perhaps be best to describe their mode of cultivation and preparation. It is simple in the extreme. In June and July seed beds of finely-powdered soil, well mixed with ashes, are made, and the seed lightly sprinkled upon them. These are left until August and September, when the "Uca ni yabaki," or spring rains fall, whereupon the young seedlings are planted out. All the choicest tobacco is generally grown within the precincts of the village, the old raised foundations of houses being used year after year, the only preparation being that of weeding and burning a lot of rubbish on them. As the crop only takes four months to come to maturity, the sites used have ample time to lie fallow and become refertilized. Failing these old house-foundations, sheltered nooks and dingles on the borders of the numerous water-courses are used.

In November the plants are stripped of their finest leaves, which are simply hung leaf by leaf in the smoke of the houses. It remains thus for about a month, when it is considered cured, and is then tied up into bundles of a hundred leaves each. The natives always compute and sell their tobacco by the hundred leaves. The average weight of one hundred leaves is one-and-a-half pounds, and each plant yields an average of ten leaves. All sorts of seed, including Virginia and Latakia, have at different times been imported and distributed amongst the natives. Not many years ago fine crop was raised on the Navua district from Latakia seed.

The qualities vary considerably; undoubtedly the best is the mountain grown. The cool bracing climate of Colo produces a medium-sized, dark-coloured, smooth, silky, and highly-aromatic leaf; whilst that grown in the damp, hot, low lands, though of a much larger size, is much lighter in colour, decidedly inferior in aroma, and presents a rough, gritty surface to the touch. The mountain tobacco is justly celebrated among the natives, and it is from these that the highest chiefs procure their supplies.

The natives smoke their tobacco rolled up into "saluka," or cigarettes, the wrapper used being the dry leaf of the plantain.

Connoisseurs are very particular in the choice of their wrappers, and will only use the leaves of certain sorts of plantains. Tobacco is an important iota of native life; without it and "kava" no important discussion can be conducted.

The production of tobacco from native sources alone could be easily increased ten-fold. Except the cultivation of his own food crops, there is nothing that a native enters into with more zest. In Colo, for seven months in the year, it forms the staple of his conversation. By the sale of his tobacco, he pays his taxes, buys his knives, axes, cloth, kerosine, and other luxuries and necessities of life. The Colo chiefs assess their men at a thousand leaves apiece, which is sold to satisfy the taxes of their respective districts. This not only does so, but leaves a handsome surplus. Only this last season, one of the Colo chiefs grew considerably more than a thousand leaves on the foundation of his house. I do not mean an old foundation, but the one on which his house was actually standing. His house is about 24 feet by 20 feet, raised on a mound of stones. In the interstices of the stones he grew his tobacco.

Owing to our present limited market, the growth of tobacco for taxation purposes is confined to a few districts. The only market we have is the local one. The heavy duties of our Australian Colonies, the majority of which are tobacco-growing countries, prohibit our finding one there. Could we but find one in England or elsewhere, large quantities could be produced and supplied at very low rates.

It has been urged by some that the curing of native tobacco is defective, and that it will not keep. This is owing to the carelessness of the wholesale buyers. When they buy a parcel they just store it with the rest of their goods, and the damp climate soon robs it of its colour and aroma. It requires to be kept in a dry place, with an even temperature. Natives store theirs away on platforms near the roofs of their houses, where there is always heat and smoke. Kept thus, it will preserve its appearance and fragrance for years.

It is greatly to be hoped that the present Exhibition will be the means of drawing the attention of manufacturers of cigars and tobacco to our capabilities of supplying the raw material. A ready market would greatly stimulate the cultivation among the natives, and be one of the greatest boons to the country.

The following statement represents the export of Fijian tobacco for the past two years:—

						Tons.	cwts.	qrs.	lbs.
1884	3	19	0	0
1885	9	17	1	13

There is a splendid opening in the Colony for men of experience in the cultivation and curing of the tobacco leaf. Hitherto it may be said to have been treated by amateurs only.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

In common with other parts of the world, Fiji has been suffering from the effects of general financial and commercial depression. The trade returns issued by the Receiver-General for the four years ending the 31st December, 1884, are however eminently satisfactory, the total trade of 1884 amounting to £779,866, and although £22,726 less than that of 1883, exceeding by the sum of £286,019 that of any other previous year. In 1876 the total trade of the Colony was £198,264 only; the increase, therefore, in the past eight years is £581,602.

IMPORTS.

As a British possession Fiji well sustains its commercial connection with its sister Colonies and the mother country. The returns quoted above show that the value of British imports in 1884 reached the sum of £426,738, whilst the imports from foreign countries amounted to £7784. Thus about $\frac{1}{5}$ of the merchandise imported into Fiji was procured from either the mother country or a British possession. This naturally arises from the close connection which the bulk of the settlers have with the Australian Colonies. In the way of exports much of the copra and cotton produced is shipped to Germany. The return ships which come out from Germany do not come direct to Fiji, but go first elsewhere to take in part of their cargo. The leading article of import in 1884 was machinery, principally for the manufacture of sugar, its value amounting to £103,176. Hardware, including, as it does, all the simple agricultural implements used by the natives, stands second on the list with a value of £59,776. Many articles required in the manufacture of sugar are also classified under this head. The most important article is, however, drapery, of a class that is most largely consumed by the numerous native population. They take it in the shape of "sulus," or cloths to wrap round their bodies, of under-shirts, which the more important natives now generally wear in addition to the sulu; and of skirts, jackets, and gay-coloured handkerchiefs for the women. The European population being now more successful is also investing in a better class of goods; and especially in Suva and Levuka there is, as compared with former years, a great difference in the style of dress. A considerable amount of common drapery is also required for paying off Polynesian labourers, who, however, as a rule, when on the estates, prefer to go clad in a very scanty manner. There has been no attempt in Fiji to

encourage the natives to adopt European costumes; but, as in other countries, the possession of exchangeable commodities, leads them to clothe themselves and families in more durable and varied stuffs than their own manufactures will permit. In 1883 the value of drapery imported was £72,781, being undoubtedly somewhat in excess of requirements; thus causing a decrease in 1884. The demand is, however, steady, and will evidently increase year by year. The amount imported in 1884 was £56,036, as against £43,281 in 1880, and £30,331 in 1876. It need scarcely be pointed out that these figures, which are the invoice values upon which the customs duties are assessed, in no way represent either the amount of money which is paid for these goods by the importers, nor the price paid by the consumers, which may be said to be the purchasing power of future exports. To the invoice value, as far as the traders are concerned, the duty must be added, and as regards the consumers, not only is the price increased by the duty and the interest and commission on the payment of the duty by the trader, but the large profit which the trader makes on such articles. There is in fact a large and increasing internal trade which cannot be measured, as there is no method, as in foreign trade, by which the statistics may be taken. The other items of import consist of a great variety of articles of trade and consumption, which it would be tedious to classify or enumerate.

EXPORTS.

The total exports in 1884 were valued at £345,344, being in excess of those of 1880 by £115,816, and of 1876 by £241,885. Machinery, principally imported for the manufacture of sugar, is the cause of the great preponderance of imports over exports.

In 1884, sugar to the value of £218,224 was exported to the Australian Colonies and New Zealand, and although the export value was decreased by £9 per ton, it exceeded that of 1883 by a sum of £42,668. The production of sugar is rapidly increasing. Since 1884 two sugar mills have been completed, and the mills of the Colonial Sugar Refining Co. on the Rewa River have been considerably enlarged. A large mill is in course of erection at Ba for the New Zealand Sugar Company, from which a very considerable output may be expected. There are now (January, 1886) twelve sugar mills in the Colony, each with a large outputting power. Copra, which stands second in value in the list of exports for 1884, shows a decrease since 1880 of £40,143, or 1626 tons. This, however, but slightly affects the local production, the amount imported for exportation in 1880 being 2097 tons, as against 665 tons in 1884.

In his report for 1884 the Receiver-General says:—

“Fruit now ranks third in our list of exports, the trade having rapidly increased, being in 1884 nearly four times greater in value than in 1881. Bananas, of which this export chiefly consists, have a local value of 1s. 6d. per bunch. Large banana plantations have been started, and the natives enter with energy into the trade, which now finds occupation for another monthly steamer. Nearly all the cases contained pine-apples. Sydney is our principal market. It is reasonably to be believed that before long the export of limes, lemons, oranges, and other fruit will assume larger proportion. I do not think the Colonial market has yet been fairly tested with these products.

Year.	Total Value.	Dried Fruit.	Green Fruit.	
			Bananas.	Miscellaneous.
	£. s. d.			
1881	5,469 19 0	43 cases.	73,583 bunches	3,100 cases
1882	9,139 16 0	16 do. & one cask	124,242 „	5,668 „
1883	15,428 7 6	1 cwt.	171,237 „	5,760 „
1884	19,710 9 0	228,734 „	4,259 „

The export of coffee in 1884 was considerably less than in 1883; it may, however, be confidently expected that this article will soon become one of our substantial exports.

The following table shows the total value of the principal exports for the year 1884 :—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Bêche-de-Mer...	752 17 10	Fruit, green	19,710 9 0	
Cocoanuts	2,219 19 4		Hides	720 15 0	
Coffee...	...	2,151 12 6		Maize	2,544 0 0	
Copra	59,241 8 3		Molasses	7,186 0 6	
Cotton	14,121 11 8		Peanuts	2,784 3 4	
Curiosities	1,490 0 6		Shell, Tortoise	805 7 0	
Fibre	1,031 16 0		Sugar	218,224 5 0	

The value of the total foreign trade during the years 1881, 1882, 1883, 1884 has been as follows :—

Year.	Total Foreign Trade.	Imports.	Exports.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1881	450,185 5 5	276,039 14 9	174,145 10 8
1882	493,846 11 2	303,329 8 2	190,517 3 0
1883	802,592 17 7	450,594 13 9	351,998 3 10
1884	779,866 0 4	434,522 2 6	345,343 17 10
Total ...	£2,526,490 14 6	£1,464,485 19 2	£1,062,004 15 4

Taking the mean population for these four years to average 128,000, the rate per head per annum is as follows :—

1881	3 10 4	2 3 1½	1 7 2½
1882	3 16 4½	2 7 4½	1 9 0
1883	6 5 4½	3 10 4½	2 14 11½
1884	6 1 10½	3 9 5½	2 13 0½

SHIPPING. STEAM COMMUNICATION.

There is a four-weekly mail service between Auckland and Suva, subsidized by the Government, and carried on by one of the line steamers belonging to the Union Steamship Co. of New Zealand. The same company have a large steamer running regularly between Melbourne, Suva, and Levuka. The Australian Steam Navigation Co. despatch from Sydney fortnightly one of the finest steamers of their fleet for Fiji, *via* Noumea. An attempt has recently been made to establish steam communication with London, and several large and powerful steamers have been employed in the service. It has, however, been found necessary to temporarily withdraw these; but, with a revival of trade, the re-establishment of this line is expected.

The work of keeping open regular communication between the different islands of Fiji is also entrusted to the Union Co. of New Zealand, who have a fine steamer employed for this purpose. There are also one or two smaller steamers having Suva as their headquarters. The Colonial Government steamer *Clyde* is also continually employed making short trips within the Colony.

OTHER SHIPPING.

A considerable fleet is now employed in the importation of coal from Newcastle, N.S.W. These vessels return to Sydney or Melbourne laden with sugar. Copra is principally shipped in vessels trading direct from Fiji to England, and the Continent of Europe. These vessels

do not return direct to the Colony. Messrs. C. Bethell and Co. have, during the past three years, despatched from London, at regular intervals, a fine class of vessel, carrying both passengers and cargo. The number of vessels employed in conveying labourers to and from Polynesia has greatly decreased during the past few years. Indian coolies are quickly superseding the old class of labour, and for their introduction ships capable of accommodating from 400 to 600 passengers are chartered. There are a great many small vessels registered and owned in the Colony; these are continuously employed within the groups in collecting produce to the commercial centres. A great number of decked boats of eight to twelve ton register are also employed in the banana trade.

The table below shows the total number of merchant vessels—steam and sailing, with their tonnage—entered at the ports of entry as arriving in this Colony during the period from 1881 to 1884 inclusive.

Year.	Steamers.	Tonnage.	Sailing Vessels.	Tonnage.	Total No. of Vessels.	Total Tonnage.
1881	45	16,356	119	19,186	164	35,542
1882	38	17,491	125	26,277	163	43,768
1883	45	36,294	153	32,236	198	68,530
1884	50	40,457	100	22,789	150	63,246
Total .	178	110,598	497	100,488	675	211,086

MARINE.

A Marine Board has been constituted to supervise the shipping of the Colony, under the Presidency of Lieut. C. F. de M. Malan, R.N., with power to grant certificates of competency in navigation.

A considerable amount of money has been voted by the Legislature for expenditure upon lighthouses, beacons, &c. The following is a list and description of those already erected :—

AT SUVA—VITI LEVU.

Name.	Colour and Character.	Height above H.W.	Visible.		
		Feet.	Miles.		
Upper leading light	White, fixed catoptric	320	15		Wooden building, white, truncated cone. Acts as beacon by day. Observed eastward of S.E. by land.
Lower leading light	Red, fixed catoptric	125	8-9		Wooden building, white, pyramidal. Acts as beacon by day. Light cut off approximately eastward of S.E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. and westward of S.S.W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.
					Distance apart of lights 1300 yards from chart. An old lighthouse is left standing on beach in same line, viz. N. (mag.).
Lightship Two, white fixed	40-30	4		Vessel, 44 tons, painted red, moored on North of extreme of eastern reef forming passage into harbour, and turning point.
Wharf Green, fixed		Shows white towards the town. Visible from entrance to passage.

NASILAI—VITI LEVU.

Name.	Colour and Character.	Height above H.W.	Visible.	
Lat. 18° 8' S., Long 178° 42' E.	White, fixed catoptric	Feet. 50	Miles. 12	Light observed from N.E. by N. round north to S.W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. Wooden building on piles, painted white.

LEVUKA—OVALAU.

Upper leading light	White, fixed catoptric	240	16	Building of corrugated iron, pyramidal, 24 ft. high, white.
Lower leading light	Red, fixed catoptric	193	5	Similar building, 28 ft. high. Line of bearing E. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.; distance apart 73 yards. Lights show from S.E. by S. to N. by E. (eastward).
Turning light ...	Green, fixed	25	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	Light shows from N. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. to N. by E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E., and indicates when a vessel is inside the reefs forming entrance, and may haul up clear of the middle patch to an anchorage.
Wharf	Green, fixed	15	2	Shows from S. by E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E. to N.N.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.

BUOYS AND BEACONS.

The system of buoys and beacons at present in use is as follows:—Approaching a harbour white buoys are left on the starboard, and black buoys on the port. All dangers in both ports Suva and Levuka, as well as in Laucala Bay, are marked by buoys and beacons.

MARKETS.

The geographical position of Fiji is most advantageous with regard to remunerative markets for its tropical produce. It is within easy distance of New South Wales, Victoria, and New Zealand, where its sugar, maize, fibre, pea-nuts, fruit, pearl-shell, and other products find ready markets. The principal other articles of export—the copra and cotton—go, as before said, either directly to Europe, or to Australia simply in transit to Europe. The steamers at present engaged in the trade occupy in the passage to New Zealand (1200 miles), 5 days; Sydney (1800 miles), 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ days; Melbourne (2200 miles), 9 days. It may be safely calculated that the close proximity of Fiji to these markets increases the value of its produce to at least one-fifth higher than that of the Mauritius or the West Indies. The local consumption is also steady and improving. Suva and Levuka, requiring considerable supplies, are good markets for sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, maize, &c. There is also a large demand for fat cattle, butter, poultry, and eggs, all of which are sold at something more than payable prices.

The following is the average retail price of the principal articles of consumption :—

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Flour, per 56 lbs. ...	8	0	Tobacco, Fijian, manufactured ...	4	6
Bread, per 2 lb. loaf ...	0	6	„ imported ...	7	0
Meat, per lb. ...	0	8	Cigars, Fijian, per 100 ...	10	0
Butter, fresh, per lb. ...	2	6	„ imported „ 12s. and upwards		
„ salt, „ ...	1	9	Soap, blue mottled, per cwt. ...	34	0
Cheese, per lb. ...	1	6	„ yellow „ ...	25	0
Milk, per quart ...	0	6	Kerosene, per gal. ...	2	0
Bacon, per lb. ...	1	4	Salt, per cwt. ...	10	0
Ham „ ...	1	6	Spirits, draught, per gal. ...	24	0
Eggs, per doz. ...	2	6	„ case, „ 52s. to 56s.		
Potatoes, per cwt. ...	12	0	Beer, per doz. ...	12	6
Rice, „ ...	28	0	Oatmeal, per lb. ...	0	6
„ Coolie „ ...	16	0	Arrowroot „ ...	0	6
Tea, Fijian, per lb. ...	2	6	Cornflour „ ...	1	0
„ imported „ ...	2	6	Preserved Meats, per lb. ...	0	9
Coffee, Fijian „ ...	1	6	Salt Beef, per 100 lbs. ...	32	0
„ imported „ ...	1	9	Yams, per cwt. ...	5s. to 10	0
Sugar, per lb. ...	2d. to 0	4	Kumaloes „ ...	3s. to 6	0
Tobacco, Fijian leaf, per lb. ...	1	6	Onions, per lb. ...	0	4

STATISTICS.

STATEMENT OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

Year.	Revenue.	Year.	Expenditure.
£	s.	£	s.
d.		d.	
1880 ...	80,678	3	91,102
1881 ...	87,442	18	89,960
1882 ...	111,314	7	109,986
1883 ...	106,814	5	88,276
1884 ...	91,522	19	98,467

The estimated Revenue for 1885 is £100,050; it is however known that the actual Revenue is considerably less.

Year.	Imports.	Year.	Exports.
£		£	
1880 ...	£185,740	1880 ...	£229,528
1881 ...	276,039	1881 ...	174,144
1882 ...	303,330	1882 ...	190,518
1883 ...	450,595	1883 ...	351,999
1884 ...	434,522	1884 ...	345,344

LAND.

	Acres.		Acres.
Total area...	4,953,920	Native lands held under lease ...	7,887
Alienated in fee simple to end		Estimated to be under cultivation	
of year 1884 ...	350,726	by Europeans ...	35,608
Alienated in fee simple to end			
of year 1885 ...	371,000		

LIVE STOCK.

Horses ...	610	Goats ...	11,429
Cattle ...	4,518	Pigs ...	50,000
Sheep ...	5,869		

POPULATION.

1884.

Males	70,856
Females	57,558
Total of all Races					128,414
Population to square mile	16.59
Births	4,540
Marriages	978
Deaths	8,592

TARIFF OF CUSTOMS DUES.

	£	s.	d.
Anchors, galvanised, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Arrowroot, per lb.	0	0 1
Aerated or mineral water, per dozen pints	...	0	0 9
Beer, ale, porter (in bottles), per gallon	...	0	1 0
Beer, ale, porter, spruce and other beers, in wood or jar, per gallon	...	0	0 9
Boots and shoes, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Bottled fruits, per dozen quarts	...	0	2 0
Bottled fruits, per dozen pints or smaller quantities	...	0	1 0
Biscuits (sweetened or fancy), per lb.	...	0	0 1
Blue, per lb.	0	0 2
Bacon, per lb.	...	0	0 2
Brushware, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Basketware, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Blacking, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Bath-brick, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Baking powder, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Barley, per lb.	0	0 1
Boxes and trunks (wood, leather, or metal), 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Cordage and rope, per ton	...	1	10 0
Cigars and cigarettes, per lb.	...	0	5 0
Coffee, chicory, cocoa, and chocolate, per lb.	...	0	0 3
Comfits, confectionery, and succades, per lb.	...	0	0 3
Chutney, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Caps, percussion, per 100	...	0	0 1
Cheese, per lb.	...	0	0 2
Candles, per lb.	...	0	0 1
Cement, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Cornflour, per lb.	...	0	0 1
Crockery, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Cordial and syrups, per gallon	...	0	2 0
Clocks, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Carriages, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Chains, galvanised, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Chains, black, three-sixteenth inches in diameter and under, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Cutlery, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Cartridges, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Cider, per gallon	...	0	1 0
Chinaware, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Dynamite and lithofracteur, per lb.	...	0	0 6
Dates, per lb....	...	0	0 2
Doors, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			

	£.	s.	d.
Opium, including all goods, wares, and merchandise mixed or saturated with opium, or with any preparation or solution thereof, or steeped therein, per lb. ...	0	15	0
Oilman's stores, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Oils of all kinds (except cocoanut and oils for medicinal uses), per gallon ...	0	0	6
Oil, perfumed, 15 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Oakum, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Oatmeal, per lb. ...	0	0	1
Oats, per bushel ...	0	0	6
Powder (sporting), per lb. ...	0	0	6
Paints, wet or dry, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Pepper, per lb. ...	0	0	2
Pickles, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Paper (writing and fancy), 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Paper (brown, wrapping, and printing), per cwt. ...	0	3	0
Peas (split), per lb....	0	0	1
Perfumery, 15 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Potted meat, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Printed forms, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Plate powder, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i>			
Pipes (tobacco), 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Pictures, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Picture frames, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Printing material (type, paper, ink), 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Paper bags, per cwt....	0	3	0
Palings, per 1000 ...	0	2	0
Plated-ware, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Rice, per ton ...	2	0	0
Sugar, per lb. ...	0	0	1
Spirits, on all kinds imported into the Colony, the strength of which can be ascertained by Sykes' Hydrometer, and is over-proof, per proof gallon ...	0	14	0
Spirits, on all kinds imported into the Colony, the strength of which can be ascertained by Sykes' Hydrometer, if under proof, per liquid gallon ...	0	14	0
Spirits and spirituous compounds, on all kinds imported into the Colony, the strength of which cannot be ascertained by Sykes' Hydrometer, per liquid gallon ...	0	14	0
Snuff, per lb. ...	0	2	0
Starch, per lb. ...	0	0	1
Sago, per lb. ...	0	0	1
Spices, per lb. ...	0	0	3
Soap (hard and soft), per lb. ...	0	0	0½
Soap (fancy, scented, or medicated), 15 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Salt and saltpetre, per ton ...	1	0	0
Soda (crystals), per ton ...	1	0	0
Shingles, per 1000 ...	0	2	0
Sauces, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Sashes and shutters, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Sewing-machines, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Sails and tents, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Stationery, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Sponges, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Steel, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Timber, undressed, per 100 feet superficial ...	0	1	6
Timber, dressed or surfaced, per 100 feet superficial ...	0	2	0
Tobacco, manufactured, per lb. ...	0	4	0

	£	s.	d.
Tobacco, unmanufactured, per lb.	0	1	0
Tea, per lb.	0	0	3
Treacle, per cwt.	0	3	0
Turpentine, per gallon	0	1	0
Toys, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Tapioca, per lb.	0	0	1
Tinware, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Twine, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Umbrellas and parasols, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Varnish, per gallon	0	2	0
Vinegar, per gallon, in bulk or bottle	0	0	6
Vermicelli, per lb.	0	0	3
Vegetables (preserved), per lb., 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Wine, Bordeaux—(claret), Australian, in bulk or bottle, per gallon	0	2	0
Wine—other kinds, in bulk or bottle, per gallon	0	4	0
Wine—sparkling, per gallon	0	6	0
Whiting, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Wooden-ware (including implement handles), 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Work-boxes, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Wall-paper, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Whips and walking-sticks, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Wire rope, per ton	1	0	0
Zinc manufactures, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Zinc, in sheet, rolls, or pipes, 10 per cent. <i>ad valorem</i> .			

LIST OF ARTICLES EXEMPT FROM DUTY.

Animals, anchors (black), biscuits (unsweetened), ballast (ships—pig and scrap iron), bêche-de-mer, books and periodicals (printed), boiler-plates, bags and sacks, casks and tanks for exporting molasses, coin, copper-sheathing, chain cables (black) over three-sixteenth inches in diameter, coal, coke, cocoanut-fibre, cocoanuts, cocoanut-oil, copra, cotton, curiosities, canvas, copper (rods), flour, felt, garden seeds, guano, hides, horns, iron and steel rails, lead for lining tea-chests, living oysters, luggage (personal), machinery (agricultural mining, sawing, steam-engines and boilers), meat (preserved and salt), manures, metals (old), metal yellow for sheathing, matting for ships' dunnage, mats for sugar, oars, ores, paving-stones, pitch, plants, powder (blasting), resin, sandalwood, shell (tortoise and pearl), skins, slates for roofing, South Sea Island produce, steel punts and lighters and material for building the same, steel railway-sleepers, tar, water-pipes, woolpacks, outside packages in which goods are ordinarily contained, sulphur, tin cut for exporting produce.

GENERAL DUTY.

On all articles not specified or not included in the free list an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent.

EXPORT DUTY.

Silver coin, over £10, 2½ per cent.

Sandalwood, manufactured or unmanufactured, per ton 5 0 0

AVERAGE RATE OF WAGES. PLANTATIONS.

Europeans—

Managers, £100 to £200 per annum, with rations.

Overseers, £50 to £100 per annum, with rations.

Ploughmen, £60 to £150 per annum, with rations.

Polynesians, £3 to £15 per annum, with rations, exclusive of passage-money.

Coolies—men, 1s. per day; women, 9d., without rations.

Fijians, £6 to £15 per annum, with rations.

TRADES.

Carpenters, Painters, Tinsmiths, Blacksmiths, Coopers, Tailors, Bricklayers, 16s. per day ;
Cabinet Makers, 20s. per day ; Native Sailors, £3 to £6 per month.

DOMESTIC.

Fijian, 4s. per week to 30s. per month.

Polynesians, £6 to £15 per annum.

Indentured Coolies—men, 1s. per day ; women, 9d., without rations.

Unindentured Coolies, £2 to £3 per month.

CATALOGUE OF MISS GORDON CUMMING'S SKETCHES IN FIJI.

NOTE.—In submitting to the public this series of travel-sketches (including those shown in the Departments for India, Ceylon, New Zealand, and New South Wales), Miss Gordon Cumming would venture to ask that criticism, from an Art point of view, may be tempered by the consideration of the manifold difficulties under which the majority were produced.

Many were obtained during exposure to scorching heat, others in the intervals between tropical rain storms, during which the artist's ingenuity was often sorely taxed to keep herself and her paper from being washed away ! Not least among the sketcher's troubles are the swarms of mosquitoes and sandflies, and the inquisitive crowding of human beings.

Worst of all is the impossibility of preserving paper from mildew, which in a few days converts the best drawing-paper into most thirsty blotting-paper, which at its best absorbs wash after wash of colour in the most trying manner. More frequently, however, the mildew reveals itself by absorbing the colour in stars and blotches all over the picture, making the drawing which has cost hours of careful work look as if it were afflicted with small-pox. Under these circumstances, the sole possible expedient is to coat the paper thickly with Chinese white paint, which of course is fatal to all clear water-colour painting, and to all brilliancy of effect.

Moreover, in very beautiful remote places, the traveller is apt to find that the supply of even mildewed drawing-paper has run short, and many of the sketches here shown are painted on pieces of waste paper, such as old estate maps kindly contributed by planters and other friends.

In the Catalogue reference is given to those pages of the One-Volume Edition of "At Home in Fiji," in which the scene of each sketch is described. A copy for reference accompanies the sketches.

No. on left-hand corner.	Reference to page in "At Home in Fiji." One Vol.	Description.
1		ISLE OVALAU. <i>Fiji</i> .
2	52	Ditto. Study of tree ferns in the Levoni Valley.
3		Ditto. Tokow village. Girls fishing. Isle Koro on the horizon.
4	70, 154—155	Ditto. The cemetery at Driemba, near Levuka. Isle Angau on the horizon.
5	41, 135—137	Ditto. Nasova. "Our Home in Fiji," looking towards Levuka.
6	137	Ditto. Nasova from the hill. The Coral Reef at low tide. Labour boys carrying reeds to thatch the house.
7	36—38	Ditto. Looking down on the Coral Reef, showing the passage to Levuka harbour. Isles Koro and Wakaia on the horizon.
8	36—130	Ditto. Fijian canoes.
9	36	Ditto. Levuka Roman Catholic Church. Peaks of Viti Levu on the horizon.

MISS GORDON CUMMING'S SKETCHES IN FIJI—*continued.*

No. on left-hand corner.	Reference to page in "At Home in Fiji." One Vol.	Description.
10	42	ISLE OVALAU. Levuka. The English Church.
11	41—43	Ditto. Levuka. Looking towards Nasova.
12	54	Ditto. Nasova and Levuka.
13		Ditto. Looking back to Levuka.
14		Ditto. Cawace, pronounced Thawathe.
15	52	Ditto. Police camp at Waitove.
16	52	Ditto. Bathing place at Waitove. Isles Koro and Waikaya on the horizon.
17	324	ISLE WAKALA. Study of Eevie and mBaka trees.
18		ISLE NAINGANI. Looking to Ovalau.
19		ISLE OVALAU. Tomuna Peak. Nearer lies the ISLE MOTURIKI.
20	50—52, 319	ISLE MOTURIKI. Looking to Viti Levu, "Great Fiji." Foreground, native graves edged with tree fern wood.
21	48	ISLE KORO. Eevie trees in a swamp at Nambuna. (Spiral fresh water shells abound.)
22	158	Ditto. Study of Eevie trees at Namatha.
23		ISLE NAIRAI. Natauloa, the chief town. Girls fishing; others drying nets. Large trees overhanging the sands.
24	178 32—35	ISLE ANGAU. Old moated village of Noogooloa, "Black Sand." The moats (to the left) are now utilised as yan gardens. The red plants indicate that in the great plague of measles whole families died, and their houses were pulled down, and they were buried on the very spot where they had lived. Various red plants are commonly planted on Fijian graves.
25	49—173	Ditto. Place of Graves near the village of Sawaieke. The red plant is <i>Dracæna</i> .
26	173	Ditto. Village of Sawaieke, beneath the cocoa palms. When Fijian hills appear grassy, they are generally found to be clothed with a dense matting of tall reeds.
27	176—180	Ditto. "Na-wai-kama." The burnt waters. Hot springs. Cocoa-palms and tree-ferns.
28	238—336	ISLE MANGO. Study of an mBaka tree.
29	336	Ditto Ditto.
30	334 341	Ditto. Natural harbour only accessible to small craft. It lies within the coral reef, which is seen beyond (coral and volcanic rocks are here curiously intermixed). Along the horizon lie Loma Loma, Malata, Susui, Thikombia, Munia, Katathanga and Tum-butha.
30A	331	Ditto. From the anchorage at Maruna.
31	334	Ditto. Looking across the coral reef to Vanua mBalavu, "The Long Land."
32	337 341	VANUA MBALAVU. Looking down on Gila Gila. This is supposed to be a subsided crater. The peculiarity of all these rocky islets and the shores of this harbour is that the action of the water has worn away the rock to such an extent that the crag everywhere overhangs, and, though you can land, there are very few points where it is possible to ascend.
33	211	VANUA LEVU. "The Great Land." Nivaka Point. Monkey-face passage. Village beneath the cocoa-palms.
34	217	Ditto. The Wai Kama ("Burnt Waters"). Hot springs at Savu Savu.
35	218	Ditto. Savu Savu Harbour. Dr. Mayo's Island. To the left lie the hot springs. On the opposite shore there is an intermittent cold spring.
36	217	Ditto. Savu Savu Harbour. Hot springs to the right.
37	217	Ditto. Ditto. Showing a group of Vesi trees matted together by luxuriant creepers.
38	238	ISLE NANANU. Looking to the Ra Coast. Vita Levi. In the distance is Tova Peak on Isle Ovalau.

MISS GORDON CUMMINGS SKETCHES IN FIJI—continued.

No. on left-hand corner.	Reference to page in "At Home in Fiji." One Vol.	Description.
39	48, 235	ISLE NANANU. Study of an nDelo tree. Coccoanuts left to sprout, preparatory to planting.
40	235	Ditto. A planter's home. Screw pine and pine-apples. Looking to the hills of Viti Levu.
41	241	Ditto. Study of a Screw pine or Pandanus.
42	241	Ditto. Ditto.
43	242	Ditto. Study of an mBaka or Banyan.
44		Ditto. Ditto.
45	117	The very aristocratic TOLE mBAU. Home of the highest chiefs of Fiji, from a burial-place on Viti Levu. In the distance lie the Isles Waikaya, Ovalau, Moturiki, Naingani, and Viwa.
46	116	Ditto. mBAU. The native capital of Fiji. Immediately in the foreground in one enclosure are the houses of the late King Cacobau (pronounced Thakombau), his wife and his sons. The wooden pillar on a hill to the left marks the grave of Tanoa, Thakombau's wicked old father.
47		Ditto. The home of King Thakombau.
48	245—248 50, 83 162	Ditto. A chief's kitchen. The fireplace; drawn to show the varieties of cooking and water pots. Great wooden Yangona bowl. A root of Yangona. An old priest's bowl of polished wood. A stone hatchet. Beautifully carved spears, carried in war dances. A curtain of paper mulberry bark.
49	112 320	Ditto. Study of old Banyan trees. The house with the high-pitched roof is the Court House, built on the site and on the model of an old heathen temple. Under the trees a lad is beating the lali or wooden drum, made of the hollow trunk of a tree. Beaten with two pieces of wood, it produces a deep resounding tone. Formerly it sounded the summons to cannibal feasts, but now to school or church.
50	88—94 111 119	Ditto. The Court House on the foundations of the old temple. The small stone at the corner is that against which were dashed the heads of the human victims here offered. In the foreground are lads practising a fan dance. The dances are most graceful and varied. On the hill stands the Wesleyan Mission, which has been the means of working such an amazing change in all these Isles. Last Autumn was celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the day when the two first missionaries landed. It was aptly called "Fiji's Golden Wedding to Christianity," for now not one nominal heathen remains, and the population have been transformed from most brutal cannibals to a race of exceptionally devout Christians.
51	65—67, 177	Ditto. The Wesleyan Mission Station and Tanoa wooden monument. The two trees are covered with notches recording the number of bodies which were cooked in the cannibal earth-oven just below. The squares indicate the foundations of an old thatched church which was burnt, and the foundation of a new one. Further lie two wooden drums, which are the church bells. Looking to the main isle or Viti Levu.
52	314	Ditto. Old Foundations of an old temple at Bau.
53	245 250—257	MALAKI ISLE. Looking across Raki Raki Bay to the Kau Vandra Range and Na Vatu ("The Rock") on Viti Levu. To the left lie the salt pans near the mouth of the Raki Raki river. To the right lies Koro Wai Wai, where, in 1873, about 450 people were killed and eaten by the men of the Ba coast.
54	243, 244	ISLE VITI LEVU. Na Vatu (The Rock). On the left is a church beside the river. The village on "The Rock" has its own church among the bread-fruit trees. On the horizon lie the Isles Malaki and Nananu.
55	—	Ditto. Na Vatu ("The Rock") and the Kau Vandra range.

MISS GORDON CUMMING'S SKETCHES IN FIJI—continued.

No. on left-hand corner.	Reference to page in "At Home in Fiji." One Vol.	Description.
56	254	ISLE VITI LEVU. Va Via on the Ra Coast. A prettily situated village lies beneath the trees on the shore at the foot of the great crags. Tova Peak in the distance.
57	254	Ditto. Ditto. Native canoes with great sails of matting, and balanced by an out-rigger, i.e. a log of wood floating alongside.
58	251	Ditto. Vatu Damu in the Raki Raki district. The town lies hidden behind the great rock on the hill. The air is fragrant with orange blossom and shaddock.
59	251	Ditto. Na Vua Vua, the chief town of Raki Raki. Salt pans among the tiri, i.e. mangrove swamp. Looking to Isle Malaki.
60	32 to 35 276	Ditto. Koro Tiko (the village on the rock) Viti Levu Bay. The square in the village marks a pit in which were buried upwards of seventy of the inhabitants who died of measles in 1875.
61	276	Ditto. Viti Levu Bay. Koro Tiko to the left; and Koro na Viti Levu among the crags to the right. Girls fishing among the mangrove bushes at the mouth of the Raki-Raki river.
62	55—70	Ditto. Suva Harbour. Site of the new capital. Field of maize.
63	310	Ditto. Ditto. Looking towards the Namousi Peaks. Foreground of sugar-cane.
64	308	Ditto. Ditto. A considerable number of houses have been built since this sketch was made, this being now the seat of Government.
65	73—76	Ditto. The burial-place at Delaudamanu, on the Rewa River. The bodies are placed horizontally, but the covering of wood and gravel follows the slope of the hill. On the summit are two wooden drums.
66	107—109	Ditto. The Rewa River from Nakamronsi.
67	149 110 245—248 162 251—258	A volume containing 56 pages of studies of Fijian Pottery, representing about one hundred forms of this rude pottery. The forms and geometrical decoration are often most artistic, and are generally perfectly symmetrical, though some pieces are two feet in depth, made without any wheel, by the women of the fisher class, who are esteemed the lowest. An interior, showing a curtain of native bark cloth. Eight small landscapes in black and white. Viti Levu.
68	81, 149 90—91, 100 75, 120 83, 50—51 81, 224 102 61, 208 101	A volume containing 56 pages of studies of Fijian manufactures. Spears and Clubs. Necklaces and breast-plates. Wooden pillows. Oil bowls and yangona bowls. Stone axes. Cannibal forks. Canoes. Fringe Dresses.

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HON. CAPT. BARRACK.—Arrowroot.

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MANGO ISLAND CO., Limited.—Ground nuts. Candenuts.

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PROVINCE OF COLO, EAST.—Kava (Native beverage).

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MANGO ISLAND CO., Limited.—Banana, or plantain meal.

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G. MORGAN & CO.—Cokonut oil. Dilo-nut oil.

J. M. LENNOX.—Dilo-nut oil.

MANGO ISLAND CO., Limited.—Dilo-nut oil.

NATIVE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.—1 Trying Plane, 1 Jack Plane. 2 Smoothing Planes. 1 Spokeshave. 1 Gauge. 1 Chalk line reel. 1 pair Hollows and Rounds. 1 Rabbit plane. 1 Beading plane. 1 Lamb's Tongue plane, or sash mould. In Box made of Yaka wood.

NATIVE MANUFACTURES.

ROKO TUI KADAVU.—Comb. Mats.

ROKO TUI LOMAI VITI.—Mats.

PROVINCE OF BA.—Mats.

PROVINCE OF BUA.—Mats.

ROKO TUI KADAVU.—Fishing nets.

PROVINCE OF RA.—Fishing nets.

ROKO TUI LOMAI VITI.—Baskets.

ROKO TUI KADAVU.—Baskets. Dishes. Sling. Club. Stone used when moulding pottery. Block and stick used by natives when beating the Cokonut-fibre. Bark of Masi, from which native cloth is made. Stick used in the manufacture of native cloth. Native cloth, first process. Native cloth, finished. Fire-making stick. Chief's walking-stick.

ROKO TUI LOMAI VITI.—Tappa, or native cloth.

PROVINCE OF RA.—Tappa, or native cloth.

PROVINCE OF BA.—Tappa, or native cloth.

ROKO TUI LAU.—Tappa, or native cloth.

ROKO TUI KADAVU.—Head-dresses of native cloth.

ROKO TUI LOMAI VITI.—Head-dresses. Fans.

HON. JAS. BLYTH.—Model of canoe.

HON. H. G. C. EMBERSON.—Model of canoe.

HON. DR. MCGREGOR, C.M.G.—Model of canoe.

PROVINCE OF RA.—Water-coolers. Whale's tooth.

PROVINCE OF BA.—Earthenware pot.

ROKO TUI LAU.—2 Bowls for holding kava.

HON. JAS. BLYTH.—72 Pieces pottery.

HON. H. G. C. EMBERSON.—14 Pieces pottery.

PROVINCE OF BA.—Knife and weed-
ing hook.

A. MACKENZIE MACKAY.—Spears,
bow and arrows.

ROKO TUI KADAVU.—Bows and
arrows.

ROKO TUI LOMAI VITI.—Bows
and arrows.

HON. JAS. E. MASON.—Mats, fans,
tappa.

ROKOTUITAI LEVU.—Mats. Pottery.

MAPS, PHOTOGRAPHS, SKETCHES, &c.

HON. JOHN BERRY.—Plan of Viti
Levu.

GEO. MOORE.—Plan of Vanua Levu

M. A. CHABÔT.—Plan of Fiji group.

PERCY F. S. SPENCE.—Water-colour
sketches.

MISS C. F. GORDON CUMMING.—
66 Water-colour sketches. (See Special Cata-
logue.)

MESSRS. BESSE & BLACK.—Photo-
graphs.

L. J. WALKER.—1 Piece Bandina box-
wood, with view of Suva engraved on it. Also
prints of same.

HON. JOHN HILL.—2 Drawings of
Rambi Island. Group of Water-colour paint-
ings of Fijian plants and flowers, by the
Misses Katie and Fannie Hill, of Rambi Island,
Fiji.

MINERALOGICAL, BOTANICAL, AND OTHER
SPECIMENS.

ROKO TUI KADAVU.—Clay used for
making pottery.

HON. JAS BLYTH.—2 Books Ferns.

G. W. THOMAS.—1 Book Ferns.

F. E. PARKER.—1 Book Ferns.

G. VESCEY.—Plumbago. Lemon grass.

MANGO ISLAND CO., Limited.—
Lemon grass. 5 Bottles soil. Bat guano.
Coral lime.

HON. H. G. C. EMBERSON.—Bottle
Yavato, a wood worm. Bottle Balolo, a sea
worm.

HON. JAS. BLYTH.—Case butterflies.
15 Bottles reptiles.

MANGO ISLAND CO., Limited.—
Cotton branch.

F. SPENCE.—1 Book Ferns.



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